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Reclassification of the United States 1920 Occupation Census, by Industry.

By CARL HOOKSTADT.

FOR years there has been a great demand for a classification of all the employees in the United States by industry. The Federal Census of Manufactures is good as far as it goes, but unfortunately it covers only one-third of the employees of the country. The United States occupation census is primarily a classification by occupation although these occupations are arranged in 9 large industrial groups. The occupation census, moreover, includes all persons over 10 years of age "gainfully employed," and in many cases does not distinguish between employers or independent workers and bona fide employees. For example, such occupations as blacksmith, dressmaker, shoemaker, carpenter, architect, etc., include all three types of "gainfully employed." Furthermore, many of the occupations contained in the census classifications are not limited to the industrial group in which they are included. For illustration, blacksmiths, carpenters, machinists, and stationary engineers and firemen are placed in the manufacturing and mechanical industries group, although such occupations are common to practically all the census industrial groups, including agriculture, mining, transportation, and trade. An attempt has here been made therefore to unscramble the Federal occupation census, first by separating the employees from the employers and independent workers and second by redistributing the census industrial and occupational groups into the standard industry classifications formulated and adopted by the committee on statistics and compensation insurance cost of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.[1] That industry classification was prepared for the purpose of standardizing industrial accident statistics and consequently the industries and occupations were classified primarily from the standpoint of hazard. One of the great weaknesses in the accident statistics compiled by the various States is the lack of accident frequency and severity rates. This lack has been due almost wholly to the inability to obtain exposure, i. e., the number of employees in the several industries. It was for the purpose of assisting in obtaining this exposure that the following redistribution of the census occupation classifications was attempted.

It is desired at the outset to emphasize that this reclassification is not entirely accurate. In many cases the separation of the employees from others gainfully employed and the redistribution of certain occupations was merely a matter of judgment and estimation, although the census index to occupations was used to good advantage

[1] Published in Bul. 276 of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

in interpreting the various occupational groups. The lack of detail in the census classification made it impossible to include under the respective industrial groups all the workers employed in them. For example, such items as "other not specified industries" contain occupations belonging under different industries. And, of course, the clerical workers are employed in all industries. Despite its inaccuracies and estimations it is hoped that this study will form the basis of a more accurate standard industry classification of employees in the United States. A detailed explanation of the methods and processes used is given at the end of this article. Although the primary purpose was to classify employees only, the following tables also include employers and independent workers. Officials and managers are shown separately because in some States officials are excluded from the scope of workmen's compensation acts.

Table No. 1 shows the number of employees, officials and managers, and employers, etc., classified according to the census industrial groups.

Table No. 2 shows the number of employees, officials and managers, and employers, etc., reclassified according to the main industrial classifications adopted by the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.

Table No. 3 shows the number of employees, officials and managers, and employers, etc., arranged according to the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions' industry classification, but in more detail than Table 2.

Table No. 4 is in still greater detail and includes occupations as well as industries.

Tables 3 and 4 may appear to be a duplication, but they are given separately because they may be used for different purposes. It will be noted that the subtotals in the manufacturing groups in these two tables do not agree. This is because the proprietors, officials, and foremen were given as a separate group in Table 4 but were allocated among the several subindustry groups in Table 3.

TABLE 1.—UNITED STATES CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1920, CLASSIFIED BY EMPLOYEES, OFFICIALS AND MANAGERS, AND EMPLOYERS.

Industry.	Employees.	Officials and managers.	Employers, independent workers, etc.	Total.
Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry	2,699,064	2,095	[1] 8,251,999	10,953,158
Extraction of minerals	1,055,898	16,991	17,334	1,090,223
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	11,869,506	249,950	699,068	12,818,524
Transportation	2,857,796	73,172	132,614	3,063,582
Trade	2,439,673	342,120	1,461,186	4,242,979
Public service	614,270	156,190	.....	770,460
Professional service	1,434,487	11,655	697,747	2,143,889
Domestic and personal service	2,871,115	56,021	477,756	3,404,892
Clerical occupations	3,126,541	.....	.....	3,126,541
Total	28,968,350	908,194	11,737,704	41,614,248

[1] Includes 1,850,119 home farm laborers.

TABLE 2.—UNITED STATES CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1920, RECLASSIFIED BY GENERAL INDUSTRY GROUPS.

Industry.	Employees.	Officials and managers	Employers, independent workers, etc.	Total.
Agriculture and forestry	2,699,064	2,095	[1] 8,251,999	10,953,158
Extraction of minerals	1,055,898	16,991	17,334	1,090,223
Manufacturing	9,372,595	254,615	531,043	10,158,253
Construction	2,292,097	.....	175,942	2,468,039
Transportation	2,818,068	73,172	132,614	3,023,854
Public utilities	177,784	.....	.....	177,784
Trade	1,893,217	206,598	1,195,251	3,295,066
Clerical and professional	8,046,841	354,723	1,433,521	9,835,085
Miscellaneous	612,786	.....	.....	612,786
Total	28,968,350	908,194	11,737,704	41,614,248

[1] Includes 1,850,119 home farm laborers.

TABLE 3.—UNITED STATES CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1920, RECLASSIFIED BY SPECIFIC INDUSTRY.

Industry.	Employees.	Officials and managers.	Employers, independent workers, etc.	Total.
Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry:				
General farming	2,442,544	.....	[1] 8,240,400	10,682,944
Fisheries (including shell fisheries)	47,552	.....	5,284	52,836
Forestry	208,968	2,095	6,315	217,378
Total	2,699,064	2,095	[1] 8,251,999	10,953,158
Extraction of minerals:				
Mining, coal	760,526	12,233	12,480	785,239
Mining, other	154,017	2,378	2,426	158,821
Quarrying	47,008	849	868	48,725
Oil, gas, etc., production	94,347	1,531	1,560	97,438
Total	1,055,898	16,991	17,334	1,090,223
Manufacturing:				
Food and kindred products—				
Food	481,526	12,997	13,638	508,161
Tobacco	186,527	4,999	3,668	195,194
Liquors and beverages	27,107	750	550	28,407
Subtotal	695,160	18,746	17,856	731,762
Printing and publishing	300,143	7,998	6,621	314,762
Wood products	733,810	19,996	14,671	68,477
Glass, clay, and stone products	250,443	7,499	5,502	263,444
Leather products	377,961	10,248	46,949	435,158
Paper and pulp products	110,621	2,999	2,200	115,820
Paper goods (boxes)	24,758	750	550	26,058
Chemical and allied products	193,747	5,249	3,851	202,847
Textiles	994,869	26,995	19,806	1,041,670
Laundries, cleaning and dyeing	132,655	4,665	12,196	149,516
Clothing	700,113	18,996	264,992	984,101
Rubber and composition goods	157,281	4,249	3,118	164,648
Iron and steel (including foundries and machine shops)	2,977,165	80,984	59,417	3,117,566
Metal goods (not iron and steel)	446,953	12,248	16,904	476,105
Miscellaneous and not specified metal	1,276,916	32,993	56,410	1,366,319
Total (manufacturing)	9,372,595	254,615	531,043	10,158,253
Construction:				
Road and street building	129,829	.....	.....	129,829
Building erection	2,162,268	.....	175,942	2,338,210
Total	2,292,097	.....	175,942	2,468,039

[1] Includes 1,850,119 home farm laborers.

TABLE 3.—UNITED STATES CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1920, RECLASSIFIED BY SPECIFIC INDUSTRY—Concluded.

Industry.	Employees.	Officials and managers.	Employers, independent workers, etc.	Total.
Transportation:				
Water (all occupations except longshoremen)	96,067	.....	2,632	98,699
Stevedoring	85,928	.....	.....	85,928
Roads and streets	858,335	20,334	127,982	1,006,651
Steam railroads	1,224,191	32,426	.....	1,256,617
Street railroads	173,691	3,455	.....	177,146
Express companies	23,520	.....	.....	23,520
Telegraph and telephone companies	333,476	10,403	1,200	345,079
Pipe lines	7,369	.....	.....	7,369
Other transportation	15,491	6,554	800	22,845
Total	2,818,068	73,172	132,614	3,023,854
Public utilities:				
Gas, water, and steam	28,307	.....	.....	28,307
Electric light and power	31,366	.....	.....	31,366
Sewage and garbage	16,677	.....	.....	16,677
Miscellaneous	101,434	.....	.....	101,434
Total	177,784	.....	.....	177,784
Trade (commercial):				
Stores	1,761,775	206,598	1,195,251	3,163,624
Warehouses	131,442	.....	.....	131,442
Total	1,893,217	206,598	1,195,251	3,295,066
Clerical and professional service:				
Clerical and professional employments—				
Agents, salesmen, and inspectors	643,444	64,723	158,082	866,249
Office employees	2,950,769	.....	.....	2,950,769
Professional employments	1,436,952	218,385	805,600	2,460,937
Subtotal	5,031,165	283,108	963,682	6,277,955
Care and custody of buildings and grounds	373,160	.....	.....	373,160
Miscellaneous occupations—				
Domestic and personal service	2,474,157	51,356	466,315	2,991,828
Policemen, firemen, etc.	147,133	20,259	.....	167,392
Other occupations	21,226	.....	3,524	24,750
Subtotal	2,642,516	71,615	469,839	3,183,970
Total (clerical and professional service)	8,046,841	354,723	1,433,521	9,835,085
Miscellaneous occupations	612,786	.....	.....	612,786
Grand total	28,968,350	908,194	11,737,704	41,614,248

TABLE 4.—UNITED STATES CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1920, RECLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRY AND OCCUPATION.

Industry and occupation.	Employees.	Officials and managers.	Employers, independent workers, etc.	Total.
Agriculture, forestry, and animal husbandry:				
Farmers and stock raisers	.....	.....	6,201,261	6,201,261
Farm laborers	2,191,508	.....	[1] 1,850,119	4,041,627
Farm, etc., foremen	93,048	.....	.....	93,048
Fishermen and oystermen	47,552	.....	5,284	52,836
Foresters, etc.	3,653	.....	.....	3,653
Gardeners, fruit growers, etc.	.....	.....	169,399	169,399
Garden, etc., laborers	137,010	.....	.....	137,010
Lumbermen, raftsmen, and woodchoppers	205,315	.....	.....	205,315
Log and timber camps (managers and owners)	.....	2,095	6,315	8,410
Other agricultural pursuits	20,978	.....	19,621	40,599
Total	2,699,064	2,095	8,251,999	10,953,158

[1] Home farm laborers.

TABLE 4.—UNITED STATES CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1920, RECLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRY AND OCCUPATION—Continued.

Industry and occupation.	Employees.	Officials and managers.	Employers, independent workers, etc.	Total.
Extraction of minerals:				
Foremen, inspectors, etc	36,931			36,931
Managers and officials		16,991		16,991
Operators			17,334	17,334
Operatives (coal)	733,936			733,936
Operatives (other mining)	148,847			148,847
Operatives (quarry)	45,162			45,162
Operatives (oil, gas, etc.)	91,022			91,022
Total	1,055,898	16,991	17,334	1,090,223
Manufacturing:				
Food and kindred products—				
Food products (laborers)	159,535			159,535
Food products (semiskilled)	188,895			188,895
Bakers	95,002		2,938	97,940
Millers	22,108		1,164	23,272
Subtotal	465,540		4,102	469,642
Tobacco (laborers)	35,157			35,157
Tobacco (semiskilled)	145,222			145,222
Subtotal	180,379			180,379
Liquors and beverages (laborers)	10,530			10,530
Liquors and beverages (semiskilled)	15,655			15,655
Subtotal	26,185			26,185
Subtotal (food and kindred products)	672,104		4,102	676,206
Printing and publishing—				
Compositors, etc	140,165			140,165
Electrotypers, etc	13,716			13,716
Engravers	14,300		753	15,053
Laborers	11,436			11,436
Pressmen, etc	18,683			18,683
Semiskilled	80,403			80,403
Apprentices	11,603			11,603
Subtotal	290,306		753	291,059
Wood products—				
Cabinetmakers	46,531			46,531
Carpenters (30% of 17% of total)	45,502			45,502
Coopers	19,431			19,431
Painters, etc. (25% of total)	18,634			18,634
Sawyers	33,809			33,809
Upholsterers	29,605			29,605
Wood carvers	3,025			3,025
Lumber and furniture (laborers)	320,613			320,613
Lumber and furniture (semiskilled)	168,719			168,719
Broom and brush (laborers)	2,800			2,800
Broom and brush (semiskilled)	12,606			12,606
Trunk (laborers)	2,486			2,486
Trunk (semiskilled)	5,456			5,456
Subtotal	709,217			709,217
Glass, clay, and stone products—				
Glass blowers	9,144			9,144
Laborers	124,544			124,544
Semiskilled	85,434			85,434
Stonecutters	22,099			22,099
Subtotal	241,221			241,221
Leather products—				
Harness, etc. (laborers)	1,885			1,885
Harness, etc. (semiskilled)	18,135			18,135
Shoe factories (laborers)	19,210			19,210
Shoe factories (semiskilled)	206,225			206,225
Shoemakers, etc. (not in factory)	39,429		39,430	78,859
Tanneries (laborers)	27,480			27,480
Tanneries (semiskilled)	32,226			32,226
Belts and cases (laborers)	3,578			3,578
Belts and cases (semiskilled)	17,189			17,189
Subtotal	365,357		39,430	404,787

TABLE 4.—UNITED STATES CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1920, RECLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRY AND OCCUPATION—Continued.

Industry and occupation.	Employees.	Officials and managers.	Employers, independent workers, etc.	Total.
Manufacturing—Continued.				
Paper and pulp products—				
Laborers	52,263	.....	.....	52,263
Semiskilled	54,669	.....	.....	54,669
Subtotal	106,932	.....	.....	106,932
Paper goods—				
Paper boxes (laborers)	3,384	.....	.....	3,384
Paper boxes (semiskilled)	20,452	.....	.....	20,452
Subtotal	23,836	.....	.....	23,836
Chemical and allied products—				
Laborers	74,289	.....	.....	74,289
Semiskilled	50,341	.....	.....	50,341
Charcoal and coke (laborers)	9,384	.....	.....	9,384
Charcoal and coke (semiskilled)	1,722	.....	.....	1,722
Petroleum refineries (laborers)	31,795	.....	.....	31,795
Petroleum refineries (semiskilled)	8,891	.....	.....	8,891
Turpentine distilleries (laborers)	1,138	.....	.....	1,138
Turpentine distilleries (semiskilled)	9,731	.....	.....	9,731
Subtotal	187,291	.....	.....	187,291
Textiles—				
Loom fixers	15,961	.....	.....	15,961
Laborers	153,310	.....	.....	153,310
Semiskilled	792,397	.....	.....	792,397
Subtotal	961,668	.....	.....	961,668
Laundries, cleaning and dyeing—				
Dyers	14,354	.....	755	15,109
Laundries (factory)	118,301	4,665	11,441	134,407
Subtotal	132,655	4,665	12,196	149,516
Clothing—				
Dressmakers, etc	61,679	.....	176,891	238,570
Milliners, etc	19,925	.....	54,941	74,866
Tailors	173,009	.....	19,223	192,232
Laborers	12,776	.....	.....	12,776
Semiskilled	409,361	.....	.....	409,361
Subtotal	676,750	.....	251,055	927,805
Rubber and composition goods—				
Rubber (laborers)	51,467	.....	.....	51,467
Rubber (semiskilled)	86,204	.....	.....	86,204
Buttons (laborers)	1,407	.....	.....	1,407
Buttons (semiskilled)	12,977	.....	.....	12,977
Subtotal	152,055	.....	.....	152,055
Iron and steel (including foundries and machine shops)—				
Annealers	2,913	.....	.....	2,913
Boiler makers	76,093	.....	.....	76,093
Carpenters (70% of 17% of total)	106,170	.....	.....	106,170
Electricians (60% of two-thirds of total)	89,010	.....	.....	89,010
Furnace men, etc	40,806	.....	.....	40,806
Machinists	934,125	.....	.....	934,125
Molders	114,031	.....	.....	114,031
Painters, factory (75% of total)	55,901	.....	.....	55,901
Pattern makers (one-half of total)	13,860	.....	.....	13,860
Rollers and roll hands	25,061	.....	.....	25,061
Agricultural implements (laborers)	11,409	.....	.....	11,409
Agricultural implements (semiskilled)	7,722	.....	.....	7,722
Blast furnaces and rolling mills (laborers)	258,830	.....	.....	258,830
Blast furnaces and rolling mills (semiskilled)	93,627	.....	.....	93,627
Other industries, including foundries (laborers)	179,607	.....	.....	179,607
Other industries, including foundries (semiskilled)	245,450	.....	.....	245,450
Not specified industries (laborers)	63,770	.....	.....	63,770

TABLE 4.—UNITED STATES CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1920, RECLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRY AND OCCUPATION—Continued

Industry.	Employees.	Officials and managers.	Employers, independent workers, etc.	Total.
Manufacturing—Concluded.				
Iron and steel—Concluded.				
Not specified industries (semiskilled)	16,942	.....	.....	16,942
Automobiles (laborers)	83,341	.....	.....	83,341
Automobiles (semiskilled)	121,164	.....	.....	121,164
Car and railroad shops (laborers)	53,643	.....	.....	53,643
Car and railroad shops (semiskilled)	97,979	.....	.....	97,979
Wagons and carriages (laborers)	9,817	.....	.....	9,817
Wagons and carriages (semiskilled	9,430	.....	.....	9,430
Shipbuilding (laborers)	69,196	.....	.....	69,196
Shipbuilding (semiskilled)	97,666	.....	.....	97,666
Subtotal	2,877,563	.....	.....	2,877,563
Metal goods (not iron and steel)—				
Coppersmiths	5,233	.....	.....	5,233
Electricians (40% of two-thirds of total)	59,341	.....	.....	59,341
Jewelers	34,307	.....	7,918	42,225
Laborers	67,887	.....	.....	67,887
Molders	9,650	.....	.....	9,650
Tinsmiths and sheet-metal workers	72,551	.....	.....	72,551
Semiskilled	91,291	.....	.....	91,291
Electrical supplies (laborers)	26,789	.....	.....	26,789
Electrical supplies (semiskilled)	64,841	.....	.....	64,841
Subtotal	431,890	.....	7,918	439,808
Miscellaneous industries (manufacturing)—				
Apprentices, n. o. s	47,885	.....	.....	47,885
Blacksmiths	204,557	.....	19,525	224,082
Cranemen, hoistmen, etc. (one-half of total)	18,944	.....	.....	18,944
Filers, grinders, buffers, and polishers (metal)	59,785	.....	.....	59,785
Laborers, n. o. s	84,337	.....	.....	84,337
Mechanics, n. o. s. (90% of total)	240,889	.....	12,678	253,567
Oilers of machinery	24,612	.....	.....	24,612
Pattern makers (one-half of total)	13,860	.....	.....	13,860
Semiskilled, n. o. s	121,968	.....	.....	121,968
Skilled occupations, n. o. s	6,410	.....	.....	6,410
Straw (laborers)	577	.....	.....	577
Straw (semiskilled)	14,102	.....	.....	14,102
Not specified industries (laborers)	191,364	.....	.....	191,364
Not specified industries (semiskilled)	207,047	.....	.....	207,047
Subtotal	1,236,337	.....	32,203	1,268,540
Proprietors, officials and managers, and foremen	307,413	249,950	183,386	740,749
Total (manufacturing)	9,372,595	254,615	531,043	10,158,253
Construction:				
Engineering construction—Road and street building and repairing	129,829	.....	.....	129,829
Building erection—				
Builders and contractors	.....	.....	90,109	90,109
Brick and stone masons	132,698	.....	.....	132,698
Carpenters (83% of total)	696,143	.....	44,369	740,512
Cranemen, hoistmen, etc. (one-half of total)	18,944	.....	.....	18,944
Electricians (one-third of total)	74,175	.....	.....	74,175
Laborers	623,203	.....	.....	623,203
Helpers (building and hand trades)	63,519	.....	.....	63,519
Mechanics, n. o. s. (10% of total)	26,765	.....	1,409	28,174
Painters	233,961	.....	16,152	250,113
Paper hangers	17,981	.....	937	18,918
Plasterers and cement finishers	43,980	.....	2,294	46,274
Plumbers and gas fitters	193,432	.....	20,672	214,104
Roofers and slaters	11,628	.....	.....	11,628
Semiskilled (building and hand trades)	7,003	.....	.....	7,003
Structural-iron workers	18,836	.....	.....	18,836
Subtotal	2,162,268	.....	175,942	2,338,210
Total (construction)	2,292,097	.....	175,942	2,468,039
Transportation:				
Water transportation—				
All occupations except longshoremen	96,067	.....	2,632	98,699
Longshoremen	85,928	.....	.....	85,928
Subtotal	181,995	.....	2,632	184,627

TABLE 4.—UNITED STATES CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1920, RECLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRY AND OCCUPATION—Continued.

Industry.	Employees.	Officials and managers.	Employers, independent workers, etc.	Total.
Transportation—Concluded.				
Road and street transportation—				
Carriage drivers	7,246	.....	1,811	9,057
Chauffeurs	256,541	.....	28,504	285,045
Draymen, etc	370,019	.....	41,113	411,132
Foremen	3,868	.....	.....	3,868
Garage keepers and managers	.....	16,860	25,291	42,151
Hostlers	18,976	.....	.....	18,976
Laborers (garage)	31,450	.....	.....	31,450
Livery-stable keepers and managers	.....	1,124	10,116	11,240
Proprietors and managers (transfer companies)	.....	2,350	21,147	23,497
Deliverymen (stores, laundries, and bakeries)	170,235	.....	.....	170,235
Subtotal	858,335	20,334	127,982	1,006,651
Steam railroad transportation—				
Baggagemen	16,819	.....	.....	16,819
Boiler washers, etc	25,305	.....	.....	25,305
Brakemen	114,107	.....	.....	114,107
Conductors	74,539	.....	.....	74,539
Foremen	73,046	.....	.....	73,046
Railway mail clerks	15,867	.....	.....	15,867
Laborers	470,199	.....	.....	470,199
Engineers	109,899	.....	.....	109,899
Firemen	91,345	.....	.....	91,345
Motormen	3,560	.....	.....	3,560
Officials and superintendents	.....	32,426	.....	32,426
Switchmen, flagmen, etc	101,917	.....	.....	101,917
Yardmen	7,148	.....	.....	7,148
Ticket and station agents	26,585	.....	.....	26,585
Inspectors	42,721	.....	.....	42,721
Other occupations	28,621	.....	.....	28,621
Railroad porters	22,513	.....	.....	22,513
Subtotal	1,224,191	32,426	.....	1,256,617
Street railroad transportation—				
Conductors	63,760	.....	.....	63,760
Foremen	6,248	.....	.....	6,248
Laborers	25,514	.....	.....	25,514
Motormen	62,959	.....	.....	62,959
Officials and superintendents	.....	3,455	.....	3,455
Switchmen and flagmen	2,500	.....	.....	2,500
Inspectors	3,451	.....	.....	3,451
Other occupations	9,259	.....	.....	9,259
Subtotal	173,691	3,455	.....	177,146
Express companies—				
Agents	5,293	.....	.....	5,293
Messengers	9,138	.....	.....	9,138
Laborers	9,089	.....	.....	9,089
Subtotal	23,520	.....	.....	23,520
Telegraph and telephone companies—				
Linemen	37,917	.....	.....	37,917
Messengers	9,403	.....	.....	9,403
Telegraph operators	79,434	.....	.....	79,434
Telephone operators	190,160	.....	.....	190,160
Foremen, etc	6,822	.....	.....	6,822
Inspectors	2,821	.....	.....	2,821
Laborers	5,088	.....	.....	5,088
Proprietors, officials, and managers	.....	10,403	1,200	11,603
Other occupations	1,831	.....	.....	1,831
Subtotal	333,476	10,403	1,200	345,079
Pipe lines—Laborers	7,369	.....	.....	7,369
Other transportation—				
Foremen, etc	6,127	.....	.....	6,127
Inspectors	1,240	.....	.....	1,240
Laborers	5,920	.....	.....	5,920
Proprietors, officials, and managers	.....	6,554	800	7,354
Other occupations	2,204	.....	.....	2,204
Subtotal	15,491	6,554	800	22,845
Total (transportation)	2,818,068	73,172	132,614	3,023,854

TABLE 4.—UNITED STATES CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1920, RECLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRY AND OCCUPATION—Continued.

Industry.	Employees.	Officials and managers.	Employers, independent workers, etc.	Total.
Public utilities:				
Gas, water, and steam (550)—[1]				
Gas works (laborers)	18,845	.....	.....	18,845
Gas works (semiskilled)	9,462	.....	.....	9,462
Subtotal	28,307	.....	.....	28,307
Electric light and power (551)—				
Electric light (laborers)	15,417	.....	.....	15,417
Electric light (semiskilled)	15,949	.....	.....	15,949
Subtotal	31,366	.....	.....	31,366
Sewage and garbage (552)—				
Laborers (garbage, etc.)	5,481	.....	.....	5,481
Laborers (street cleaning)	11,196	.....	.....	11,196
Subtotal	16,677	.....	.....	16,677
Miscellaneous (553)—				
Laborers (other)	101,434	.....	.....	101,434
Total (public utilities)	177,784	.....	.....	177,784
Trade:				
Commercial (33)—				
Stores (570)—				
Clerks in stores	413,918	.....	.....	413,918
Decorators, etc	8,853	.....	.....	8,853
Floorwalkers, etc	20,604	.....	.....	20,604
Laborers	125,007	.....	.....	125,007
Retail dealers	.....	199,241	1,129,034	1,328,275
Salesmen, etc	1,125,782	.....	.....	1,125,782
Wholesalers, etc	.....	7,357	66,217	73,574
Other pursuits	67,611	.....	.....	67,611
Subtotal	1,761,775	206,598	1,195,251	3,163,624
Warehouses (576)—				
Foremen (warehouses)	5,833	.....	.....	5,833
Laborers (coal, lumber, and warehouses)	125,609	.....	.....	125,609
Subtotal	131,442	.....	.....	131,442
Total (trade)	1,893,217	206,598	1,195,251	3,295,066
Clerical and professional service:				
Clerical and professional employments (34)—				
Agents, salesmen, inspectors (outside) (602)—				
Officials and inspectors (city and county)	.....	55,597	.....	55,597
Officials and inspectors (State)	.....	9,126	.....	9,126
Commercial travelers	179,320	.....	.....	179,320
Inspectors, etc	13,714	.....	.....	13,714
Insurance agents	59,959	.....	59,959	119,918
Mail carriers	91,451	.....	.....	91,451
Newsboys	6,990	.....	20,971	27,961
Real estate agents	67,111	.....	74,567	141,678
Sales agents, auctioneers, and demonstrators	49,127	.....	2,585	51,712
Agents, canvassers, collectors	175,772	.....	.....	175,772
Subtotal	643,444	64,723	158,082	866,249
Office employees (603)	2,950,769	.....	.....	2,950,769
Professional employments (604)—				
All professional employments in census (except aeronauts)	1,433,175	11,655	697,747	2,142,577
Architects' apprentices	3,777	.....	.....	3,777
Bankers, etc	.....	80,806	80,807	161,613
Postmasters	.....	31,935	.....	31,935
Other officials	.....	39,273	.....	39,273
Insurance officials	.....	15,060	.....	15,060
Proprietors, officials, and managers, n. o. s	.....	26,082	8,694	34,776
Real estate officials	.....	7,457	.....	7,457
Undertakers	.....	6,117	18,352	24,469
Subtotal	1,436,952	218,385	805,600	2,460,937

[1] Numbers within parentheses refer to the schedule and group designations in the International Association of Accident Boards and Commissions industry classification.

TABLE 4.—UNITED STATES CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS, 1920, RECLASSIFIED BY INDUSTRY AND OCCUPATION—Concluded.

Industry and occupation.	Employees.	Officials and managers.	Employers, independent workers, etc.	Total.
Clerical and professional service—Concluded.				
Care and custody of buildings and grounds (35)—				
Buildings (622)—				
Charwomen	36,803	.....	.....	36,803
Guards, watchmen, etc	115,553	.....	.....	115,553
Lighthouse keepers	1,463	.....	.....	1,463
Janitors, etc	178,628	.....	.....	178,628
Elevator tenders	40,713	.....	.....	40,713
Subtotal	373,160	.....	.....	373,160
Miscellaneous occupations (36)—				
Domestic and personal service in census (except charwomen, janitors, elevator tenders, laundry workers in factory, and railroad porters) (651)	2,474,157	51,356	466,315	2,991,828
Policemen, firemen, etc. (652)—				
Firemen	50,771	.....	.....	50,771
Policemen	82,120	.....	.....	82,120
Detectives	11,955	.....	.....	11,955
Marshals and constables	.....	6,897	.....	6,897
Sheriffs	.....	10,683	.....	10,683
Probation and truant officers	.....	2,679	.....	2,679
Life savers	2,287	.....	.....	2,287
Subtotal	147,133	20,259	.....	167,392
Other occupations (653)—				
Piano tuners	3,523	.....	3,524	7,047
Other occupations	17,703	.....	.....	17,703
Subtotal	21,226	.....	3,524	24,750
Total (clerical and professional service)—	8,046,841	354,723	1,433,521	9,835,085
Miscellaneous occupations:				
Aeronauts	1,312	.....	.....	1,312
Engineers (stationary)	242,096	.....	.....	242,096
Firemen (stationary)	143,875	.....	.....	143,875
Soldiers, sailors, and marines	225,503	.....	.....	225,503
Total	612,786	.....	.....	612,786
Grand total	28,968,350	908,194	11,737,704	41,614,248

Explanation of Methods Employed.

IN ORDER that the reader may know just how the results shown in the foregoing tables were arrived at, a description and explanation of the methods employed are here given.

Separation of Employees from Other Gainfully Employed Persons.

As already stated, the Federal census does not always distinguish between employees and employers or independent workers, and it was therefore necessary to separate the bona fide employees from the other gainfully employed persons. The status of many of the occupations in the census is definite and obvious, while other occupational groups include both employees and employers or independent workers. Those occupations which include both types of persons are listed in the following table:

TABLE 5.—ESTIMATED PER CENT OF GAINFULLY EMPLOYED PERSONS IN UNITED STATES OCCUPATION CENSUS OF 1920 WHO ARE EMPLOYERS OR INDEPENDENT WORKERS.

Industry and occupation.	Per cent employers, etc.	Industry and occupation.	Per cent employers, etc.
Agriculture:		Trade—Concluded.	
Fishermen and oystermen	10	Real estate agents, etc	50
Corn shellers, etc	20	Retail dealers	85
Other and not specified pursuits	50	Auctioneers, etc	5
Manufacturing and mechanical industries:		Undertakers	75
Bakers	3	Wholesale dealers, etc	90
Blacksmiths	10	Professional service:	
Carpenters	5	Actors, etc	10
Dressmakers, etc. (not in factory)	75	Architects	25
Dyers	5	Artists, etc	30
Engravers	5	Editors and reporters	20
Jewelers, etc	20	Chemists, etc	5
Mechanics, n. o. s	5	College presidents, etc	5
Millers	5	Dentists	75
Milliners, etc	75	Musicians, etc	60
Painters, etc	5	Osteopaths	90
Paper hangers	5	Photographers	50
Plasterers, etc	5	Physicians, etc	95
Plumbers, etc	10	Teachers, athletic, etc	10
Shoemakers, etc. (not in factory)	50	Technical engineers	10
Piano tuners, etc	50	Trained nurses	30
Tailors, etc	10	Veterinary surgeons	90
Transportation:		Other professional pursuits	5
Captains, etc	10	Semiprofessional pursuits	50
Carriage drivers, etc	20	Domestic and personal service:	
Chauffeurs	10	Barbers, etc	20
Draymen, etc	10	Billiard room, etc., keepers	90
Garage keepers and managers	60	Bootblacks	10
Livery stable keepers, etc	90	Hotel keepers, etc	20
Proprietors, etc., transfer companies	90	Launderers, etc. (not in factory)	30
Proprietors, etc., n. o. s	10	Laundry operators	2
Trade:		Nurses (not trained)	10
Bankers, etc	50	Porters (except railroad and stores)	10
Insurance agents	50	Restaurant, etc., keepers	95
Newsboys	75	Other pursuits	30
Proprietors, etc	25		

The percentages given are the percentages of employers or independent workers for each group. As stated before, these percentages were adopted after careful examination of the census index to occupations. It is freely admitted that they are based almost entirely upon judgment.

Officials and Managers.

Officials and managers, although employees, are given apart from other employees. In some of the census industry and occupation classifications these occupations have been given separately; in other classifications they have been included with employer groups. For example, retail and wholesale dealers, bankers, undertakers, etc., include a certain percentage of managers. Where officials and managers have been given in toto for the entire industrial group, as in the case of manufacturing and mechanical industries, they have been redistributed among the several subindustry groups prorated on the basis of the number of employees in the several groups. It will be noted that no officials and managers are given for some of the industries as shown in Tables 3 and 4. This does not mean that there were no officials and managers for these groups, but that it was difficult or impossible to allocate them for these industries.

Redistribution of Occupations in Census Classifications.

In order to classify the employees in the United States according to the standard industry classifications it was necessary to redistribute the industry and occupation classifications as given in the census. Some of the occupations, such as farmers and miners, obviously can belong only to one industrial classification. Others, however, such as blacksmiths and stationary firemen, are common to several industrial classifications. The 1910 Federal census of occupations contained a classification of occupations by industry, and the distribution therein shown was followed as far as practicable in allocating the occupations in the 1920 census.

Agriculture and extraction of minerals.—No changes were made in the reclassification of the occupations in agriculture and extraction of minerals.

Manufacturing and mechanical establishments.—Most of the occupational groups included under manufacturing and mechanical industries have been retained under manufacturing in the new classification although it was necessary to allocate these occupations among the several subindustry groups. A number of the occupations were transferred to other industry classifications in the new schedule.

For example, boiler makers, molders, and machinists were transferred to the subclass "iron and steel" under manufacturing; cabinetmakers and coopers were transferred to wood products; dressmakers and tailors were transferred to clothing manufacturing; compositors were transferred to printing and publishing; blacksmiths, filers and polishers, and oilers of machinery were transferred to miscellaneous manufacturing.

All of the following occupations were transferred to construction: Builders and contractors, masons, building laborers, helpers in building and hand trades, building painters, paper hangers, plasterers and cement finishers, plumbers and gas fitters, roofers and slaters, structural-iron workers, and the semiskilled in building and hand trades.

Electric light and power plants and gas works were transferred to public utilities.

Piano tuners and architects' apprentices were transferred to clerical and professional service.

Stationary engineers and stationary firemen were transferred to a separate new classification, inasmuch as these occupations were common to practically all of the industrial groups and it was not feasible to redistribute them.

Proprietors and officials and foremen for the entire manufacturing and mechanical industry group were distributed among the new subindustry groups on the basis of the number of employees in each group.

Apprentices as shown in the census classification were combined with their respective trades.

The following occupations, because of their numerical importance and also because they were common to several industries, were redistributed among several industry classifications. They were allocated only among those classifications which contained a preponderating number of these occupations as shown by the 1910

occupation census. The occupations and the per cent which were allocated to the several industry classifications are as follows:

Carpenters: Eighty-three per cent to construction; 30 per cent of 17 per cent (5.1 per cent) to wood products; 70 per cent of 17 per cent (11.9 per cent) to iron and steel.

Cranemen, derrick men, hoist men, etc.: Fifty per cent to miscellaneous manufacturing; 50 per cent to construction.

Electricians: Thirty-three and one-third per cent to construction; 60 per cent of two-thirds (40 per cent) to iron and steel; 40 per cent of two-thirds (26⅔ per cent) to miscellaneous manufacturing.

Mechanics, n. o. s.: Ninety per cent to miscellaneous manufacturing; 10 per cent to construction.

Painters, glaziers, varnishers, enamelers (factory): Twenty-five per cent to wood products; 75 per cent to iron and steel.

Pattern makers: Fifty per cent to iron and steel; 50 per cent to miscellaneous manufacturing.

Transportation.—Of the occupations included under transportation in the Federal occupation census, road and street building and repairing were transferred to construction; street cleaning to public utilities; and mail carriers to clerical and professional service. All of the other groups were retained under the new transportation classification.

Trade.—The following occupations under the census "trade" classification were transferred to clerical and professional service: Bankers, brokers, and money lenders; commercial travelers; inspectors, gaugers, and samplers; insurance agents and officials; newsboys; proprietors, officials, and managers, n. o. s.; real estate agents and officials; auctioneers, demonstrators, and sales agents; undertakers.

Delivery men (stores, laundries, and bakeries) were transferred to transportation.

All of the other occupations were retained under the new "trade" classification.

Public service (not elsewhere classified).—Laborers were transferred to public utilities; soldiers, sailors, and marines were transferred to a separate classification under the new schedule. All of the other occupations under public service were transferred to clerical and professional service.

Professional service.—Aeronauts were transferred to a separate classification under the new schedule. All of the other occupations under the census professional service group were transferred to clerical and professional service.

Domestic and personal service.—Steam railroad porters were transferred to transportation; laundry operatives, owners, and officials were transferred to the submanufacturing classification, "laundries, dyeing, and cleaning." All of the other occupations under the census domestic and personal service group were transferred to clerical and professional service.

Clerical occupations.—All of the occupations under this group were transferred to clerical and professional service.

Comparison of Census of Manufactures with Reclassified Census of Occupations.

IN ORDER to ascertain how the manufacturing classification of the reclassified census of occupations of 1920 compares with the ensus of manufactures of 1919 these two classifications have been arranged in parallel columns as shown in the following table. The census of manufactures contains only wage earners, whereas the census of occupations contains all employees, including salaried workers as well as wage earners. The total number of salaried employees has been added to the total of the census of manufactures. The stationary engineers and firemen, which were not allocated in the census of occupations, were added to the total. It will be noted that in most of the classifications the number of employees in the census of manufactures approximate those in the census of occupations. The two principal exceptions are the food and chemical industries.

TABLE 6.—COMPARISON OF CENSUS OF MANUFACTURES OF 1919 WITH RECLASSIFIED CENSUS OF OCCUPATIONS OF 1920.

Industry.	Census of manufactures (wage earners).	Census of occupations (employees). Table 3.
Food and kindred products	684,672	494,523
Liquors and beverages	55,442	27,857
Tobacco	157,097	191,526
Textiles and their products	[1] 1,611,309	1,021,864
Clothing	.....	719,109
Iron and steel	1,585,712	[2] 3,073,095
Vehicles and land transportation	495,939	.....
Railroad repair shops	515,709	.....
Lumber and its remanufacture	839,008	761,578
Leather and its finished products	349,362	[3] 388,209
Printing and publishing	.....	308,141
Paper and pulp products	[4] 509,875	113,620
Paper boxes	.....	25,508
Chemical and allied products	[5] 427,008	198,996
Glass, clay, and stone	298,659	286,639
Metal products (not iron and steel)	339,469	467,571
Rubber and composition goods	.....	161,530
Laundries, dyeing and cleaning	.....	137,320
Miscellaneous industries	[6] 1,227,111	[7] 1,250,124
Total	9,096,372	9,627,210
Salaried employees	1,447,227	.....
Stationary engineers and firemen (not allocated)	.....	385,971
Grand total	10,543,599	10,013,181

[1] Includes clothing.
[2] Includes vehicles and railroad repair shops.
[3] Includes cobblers not in factory.
[4] Includes printing and publishing.
[5] Includes gas works.
[6] Includes rubber and composition goods, electrical supplies, shipbuilding.
[7] Includes not specified metal industries.

History of Arbitration in American Newspaper Publishing Industry.

By DAVID WEISS, A. M., MEMBER OF THE INTERNATIONAL TYPOGRAPHICAL UNION.

Introduction.

PRIOR to the invention of the linotype machine American newspapers were small in size, limited in edition, and did not nearly begin to cover the large news field which they do to-day. This was due not so much to a lack of enterprise on the part of the management as to the inability of the mechanical department to produce a sufficient quantity of type. Moreover, composition by hand was not only a slow, laborious process, but very expensive. Only the prosperous newspaper could afford to set more than about two-thirds of its type in its own office.

The prohibitive cost of composition necessitated the use of "boiler plate."[1] These stereotyped plates were obtained from newspaper syndicates located in New York, Boston, Chicago, San Francisco, and other large cities advantageously situated, where they did a profitable business in such ready-to-print matter. This matter contained principally "feature" material—short and serial stories and special and timely articles contributed by well-known writers, preachers, teachers, politicians, stage celebrities, and other persons in the public eye. Without the aid of these "plates" daily newspapers would have had either to reduce their already limited number of pages or to employ such a large number of compositors and quantity of type as to make newspaper publishing financially prohibitive. These "plates" came, by fast freight, to the publisher for his own personal use, after which they had to be returned to the original owner.

With the perfection of the linotype machine, however, a revolution in newspaper publishing was effected. One linotype operator could now set four to five times as much type as a hand compositor. Instead of picking up one type at a time, he sat before a keyboard, and with speed and accuracy that were formerly almost inconceivable composed a whole line at a time without moving from his seat until his tray was full of type, when he would get up and empty it onto a galley.[2] Type was thus set with greater ease and at a much lower cost than before, with the result that "boiler plate" lost favor with most editors.

The adoption of the typesetting machine produced considerable anxiety in the printing world. Printers, unable to see the long-time effect of cheap composition, dreaded the day when the linotype would be in general use. Some already imagined themselves thrown out of work, walking from shop to shop, begging for a day's employment. Furthermore, they feared that within a short time the compositor's trade would be reduced to the status of semiskilled labor, gradually being filled with women and children.

The immediate result was precisely what the printers feared. For by October 8, 1894, more than 3,500 members of the International

[1] Metal plates, having a flat surface, about 2¼ inches wide and 20 inches long.
[2] A zinc, steel, or brass tray of various widths and lengths used to hold type.

Typographical Union had been displaced by 1,450 linotypes then in use,[3] while the number of nonunion men discharged was never learned. Faced with this grave situation, a few printers, like the Luddites, urged that the union either destroy the machines or prohibit their use. Others demanded that the union secure control of the existing patents or offer attractive inducements for the invention of new ones, to be rented to publishers and other employers. Both of these suggestions were disregarded, being considered either impossible or impracticable. But there still remained another plan of action for the organization to pursue, namely, to obtain control of the operation of the linotype through agreements with the publishers that the printers already employed should be given the first opportunity to qualify as linotype operators.[3] To this most employers readily subscribed, thereby reducing displacement to a minimum. Through agreements with publishers the union secured for its members a quasi-monopoly. Union men not only operated the new machines but acted in the capacity of machinists and machine tenders. And with the aid of the new machines all-home print was made economical, thus permitting editors to increase the number of their pages and editions.

Following the installation of the linotype, there was a short period of merciless competition between contiguous newspapers. Each publisher strove, by incorporating in his paper new features and special departments, to win not only the advertising and circulation from his rivals but their most efficient printers.[4] And when negotiating a new contract with a subordinate union, he would not infrequently insist on a more favorable agreement than had been granted to his competitors. Obviously this precipitated many disputes between unions and proprietors, often resulting in strikes or lockouts.

It was not long, however, before progressive publishers realized that if their business was to prosper they had to have some sort of safeguard against strikes, boycotts, and other interference with publication. Such stoppages not only were irritating but involved an irreparable loss in money and prestige. A newspaper is unlike most other commodities. It has to be produced daily and sold daily, or it is worthless. Moreover, a newspaper plant was no longer a small, inexpensive enterprise, but a business in which thousands or hundreds of thousands of dollars were invested. Consequently it was to the interest of both publisher and employee to effect some sort of an agreement which would guarantee the proprietor against strikes and boycotts on the one hand and protect printers against lockouts and sudden reductions in pay on the other. Thus in 1899 and 1900 we find various branches of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association discussing the practicability of local and national arbitration, with just such a purpose in view.[5]

[3] Tracy, George A.: History of the International Typographical Union. Indianapolis, 1913, p. 497.
[4] This information is vouched for by scores of old-time printers whom the writer met during his 16 years of experience at the trade in about 10 States.
[5] American Newspaper Publishers' Association Bulletin on Organization, Indianapolis.

First Agreement, May 1, 1901, to May 1, 1902.

THE first fruitful attempt to effect an arbitration agreement between the American Newspaper Publishers' Association and the International Typographical Union was made by Frederick Driscoll, of St. Paul, Minn., who, as representative of the former organization, was invited to address the printers' convention at Milwaukee, August 14, 1900.[6] Encouraged by the friendly reception accorded him by the printers, Mr. Driscoll pressed the question at the publishers' convention held in New York in February, 1900, but received little support. Nevertheless a committee of seven was appointed to investigate the feasibility of the plan, with instructions to report at the next annual meeting of that body.

The majority of the publishers were not as yet convinced of the practicability of an arbitration agreement. For when the committee of seven reported in favor of arbitration, they voted it down, not because they were opposed to the principle, but because they believed that the subordinate unions would not live up to their contracts, especially as no national union officials had been consulted about the proposed plan.[5] However, a majority of the attending delegates agreed to test the project, provided that only members in favor of it should be requested to sign an arbitration contract. A standing committee of three was selected "to take up labor questions affecting the members of the association, with all power to protect the interests of the publishers who may be in trouble with labor unions."[5] The delegates, furthermore, voted that no local member or association should decide a question "involving the jurisdiction of a national union," or make changes affecting members at large, until such matters had been passed upon by the special standing committee. The convention also gave the special committee power to negotiate with each of the allied organizations in order to establish joint arbitration boards for the purpose of adjudicating all disputes between its members and local unions which could otherwise not be settled peaceably.

Upon adjournment the president appointed Alfred Cowles, of the Chicago Tribune, chairman; Herman Ridder, of the New York Staats Zeitung; and M. J. Lowenstein, of the St. Louis Star, members of the special standing committee, and instructed them to bring before the International Typographical convention the question of permitting the employment of nonunion persons as proof readers. At that convention the representative of this committee argued that since linotype machinists were not printers there was no reason why they should be compelled to become members of the typographical union. Complaint was also made that the "International Typographical Union does not at all times respect as sacred contracts made between local unions and publishers," and that a great deal of friction was caused by local unions, which at secret meetings drew up new wage demands without first consulting the publishers in the

[5] American Newspaper Publishers' Association Bulletin on Organization, Indianapolis.
[6] Idem. It should be mentioned at this point, however, that Alexander A. McCormick, then manager of the Chicago Record Herald, and Evening Post, was the first to propose such a plan, which was to be worked out through a labor bureau, in a talk before the publishers' association in convention at Chicago the previous year.

jurisdiction affected. Another point of contention to which reference was made was the fact that foremen were compelled to be members of the union.

At this time it was reported that the 200 publishers having agreements with typographical unions had more than $20,000,000 invested in their mechanical plants and employed about 20,000 persons, of whom approximately 60 per cent were members of labor unions.

On assuming the office of labor commissioner of the publishers' association, Mr. Driscoll drew up a tentative agreement and presented it to James M. Lynch, at that time president of the International Typographical Union. The proposed agreement provided for the submission of all disputes affecting wage scales to arbitration boards composed of one representative of each contending party, with a third to be chosen by the two arbitrators.

At the printers' national convention in 1900 the national union advised that subordinate bodies adopt conciliatory measures at all times when revising their scale of prices; that they submit any new demands to the publishers interested before attempting to put them into effect; and that unions, when requested, allow a representative of the publishers' association to be heard on important changes affecting their interests. The delegates, furthermore, adopted resolutions providing for an amicable adjustment of all differences; they agreed to submit to arbitration all disputes, pending and future, between members of the typographical union and of the publishers' organization; and to print these resolutions and send them to all subordinate unions, which, if indorsed by 50 of them, should then be submitted to a referendum of the entire membership. President Lynch named an executive council consisting of C. E. Hawkes, J. W. Bramwood, and himself, which later met Messrs. Cowles, A. A. McCormick (proxy for Herman Ridder), and Lowenstein, representing the publishers, at Chicago, on November 16 and 17; there they drew up and signed an arbitration agreement. On referendum to the printers in March, 1901, the agreement was indorsed by 9,014 votes out of a total of 16,074 cast.[7] The contract, which consisted of 16 sections and went into effect May 1, 1901, provided substantially as follows:

(1) Publishers with arbitration pacts employing union labor in any or all mechanical departments were to be protected against strikes, walkouts, boycotts, or any other concerted interference with the peaceful operation of departments so contracted for.

(2) If conciliation between publisher and union failed the case was to go to the local arbitration board. Upon the failure of the local board to agree or to reach a satisfactory decision, the differences were to be settled by the national board.

(3) In case of an appeal from the local board of arbitration, the national board was to take evidence only upon a majority vote of the board; but the appellant and appellee might be required to submit records and briefs and make oral or written arguments in support of their several contentions.

(4) Pending a decision under such an appeal work was to be continued. If a change was finally made in the wage scale, it was to be retroactive.

(5) Any number of newspaper publishers in a city might form a local publishers' association and enter into a contract, verbal or written, with the typographical union.

(6) An employer of union labor could demand the services of the national board of arbitration when the local board failed to render a satisfactory decision.

(7) Local unions could demand the services of the national board when they were dissatisfied with a decision of a local board.

[7] Tracy, George A.: History of the International Typographical Union. Indianapolis, 1913, p. 647.

(8) A union department was construed to mean only one composed wholly of union employees, in which union rules prevailed, and in which the union had been formally recognized by the employer.

(9) The agreement was to apply to individual members of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association or to local associations which had accepted it at least 30 days before the development of a dispute.

(10) The national board of arbitration was to consist of the president of the International Typographical Union and the commissioner of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, or his proxy. If they could not reach an agreement, they were to choose a third member, who was to act as chairman of the board. The decision of a majority of the board was final.

(11) In the event of the refusal of either party to a dispute to accept and comply with the decision of the national board of arbitration, all aid and support to the firm or union was to be withdrawn by both parties to the agreement, and acts of such recalcitrant were to be publicly disavowed.

(12) The national board of arbitration was to act when its services were required, and do so at the earliest possible moment.

(13) All expense attendant upon the settlement of any dispute, except personal expenses, were to be borne equally by the parties to the dispute.

(14) Conditions obtaining before the initiation of a dispute were to remain in effect pending arbitration.

(15) Section 15 contained 10 minor clauses, which are to govern the procedure of arbitration.

(16) Section 16 contained the contract in full.

Having adopted a tentative arbitration compact, the publishers and the national union set about to construct a permanent instrument which would be both equitable and practicable. This marks the genesis of industrial arbitration agreements in the United States and will stand out as a landmark in labor history.

The arrangement provided for a local board of three arbitrators: One representative of the publishers, one of the union, and a third chosen by the other two. This board was to judge all disputes in its jurisdiction, with status quo prevailing until an award was made. If, however, in the opinion of either party the judgment rendered was unsatisfactory, an appeal could be taken to the national board, consisting of the labor commissioner of the publishers and the president of the international union; and if they failed to agree, a third, disinterested, person was to be selected to preside. A majority decision was binding on both parties.[8]

With the consent of both the publishers' association and the union, the national tribunal was later increased to six members. If this body failed to agree after two meetings, a seventh person could be added, who was to be chairman of the committee. The local boards were ordered to increase their membership to four, each side choosing two, with the power to add a fifth, if they did not agree.[9]

With arbitration an established institution, a more conciliatory attitude was manifested by both sides whenever a controversy arose over a new wage scale or working conditions. Publishers were now assured continuous publication; they were protected against strikes, walkouts, and other stoppages, to which many of them had heretofore been frequently subjected, and which invariably resulted in an irretrievable loss to both employer and employee. Now, instead of

[8] At the printers' convention held at Birmingham in 1901 an attempt was made to annul the compulsory feature of the agreement, but this proposal was defeated by a large majority. The delegates then adopted a resolution pledging the union whole-heartedly to the principle of arbitration and empowering the executive council to make such additions and changes as it deemed necessary in framing new agreements. (The Bulletin, Indianapolis, June, 1917, supplement, p. 270. Organ of International Typographical Union.)

[9] It is interesting to note that at this time the Mailers', the Stereotypers' and Electrotypers', and the Photoengravers' unions were affiliated with the International Typographical Union.

resorting to strikes, lockouts, boycotts, or blacklists, difficulties were amicably settled. In fact, so successful was arbitration during the first year that not a single strike or lockout occurred in an office which had an arbitration agreement, whereas seven strikes occurred in newspaper composing rooms which had no such compacts. Unquestionably this record had considerable influence on the skeptical employer. Moreover, it dispelled the suspicion of some unionists who had always held that compulsory submission of disputes to arbitration would materially weaken their organization. And after a year of industrial peace, during which 20 newspaper offices were unionized, both sides were unequivocally committed to the principle of industrial arbitration. Conciliation replaced hostility; good will superseded suspicion; and cooperation and collective efforts followed destructive competition and individual bargaining.

Second Agreement, May 1, 1902, to May 1, 1907.

NOTWITHSTANDING the success of the initial arbitration agreement, it was not long before both parties realized that the new instrument lacked elasticity and comprehensiveness. It provided for controversies arising over existing wage contracts, but contained practically nothing as to means for adjusting disputes which might result from the negotiation of new wage scales. Nevertheless both parties were willing, with certain amendments, to renew the covenant, and this was done, but this time for a period of five years, to take effect May 1, 1902.

At the Cincinnati convention in 1902 it was brought to the attention of the delegates that the publishers' association strongly objected to what was then known as section No. 142 of the Book of Laws of the International Typographical Union. This section provided for the abrogation of a contract in the event of trouble with a union affiliated with the allied trades council. As this provision had long been regarded as a dead letter—only one attempt having been made to enforce it—the delegates readily annulled this clause. The convention, however, peremptorily refused the request of the publishers that the laws of the international union be subject to arbitration, and instructed the executive council not to allow such a proceeding to occur in the deliberations of the national board of arbitration.

Peace and a most cordial relationship marked the first two years of the second arbitration agreement. The few minor differences which arose were easily adjusted in a manner satisfactory to both parties. In the summer of 1903, however, two serious labor disturbances broke the peace.

On the expiration of their contracts, the Seattle and the Spokane unions presented demands for an increase over the old scale of wages. These were immediately followed by counterpropositions from the publishers' associations in both cities, demanding that wages be reduced and the number of working hours be increased. The publishers' demands provoked indignation among the printers and were summarily rejected by them. The disputes went to local arbitration. The unions declared that their demands were "just," and, therefore, should be granted. The publishers, on the other hand, replied that their counterproposals were equally "just" and should

be given consideration along with the printers' demands. A deadlock followed. Neither side would yield. The local boards in both cities struggled to effect a conciliation, but in vain, for the contending proposals were so divergent that arbitration was impossible. Finally, losing faith in the local boards, the printers in both cities struck and completely tied up the papers parties to the arbitration. An immediate call was sent to the national arbitration board, which, on arriving at the scene of the strike, ordered the men back to work, pending arbitration. Both disputes were finally settled in favor of the unions.

In reporting this rupture at the printers' convention of 1903, held at Washington, D. C., the special committee which had been appointed to investigate both strikes declared that the "publishers precipitated the trouble by a display of bad faith in the outset."[10] This charge, however, was vigorously denied by Commissioner Driscoll in an address to the delegates. President Lynch, in summarizing the controversy, asserted that both disturbances were caused by the fact that there was no code of procedure to guide the arbitration boards.

The provision which bound the local union to arbitration, through the national organization, and at the same time left publishers free to accept or reject the agreement, caused considerable dissatisfaction among local unions. President Lynch pointed out this disparity in an address before the publishers' association, and requested that the organization take action that would equally bind the employer to the principle. According to reports of local unions, it was the practice of certain publishers to refuse arbitration until the time arrived to negotiate a new wage scale, then hurriedly execute a contract, and use every effort to avoid the 60-day clause.[11] To remedy this evil, the executive council suggested that a change be made in section 8 of the covenant, so as to read:

SECTION 8. This agreement shall bind only those individual members of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association and local associations of publishers entering into the "contract" as herein set forth, and this contract shall not apply to disputes having their inception within 60 days after such agreement has been countersigned and guaranteed by the president of the International Typographical Union. The inception of a dispute is the date that notice is given of the desire in any way to change existing conditions; provided, that the International Typographical Union executive council must accept or reject any contract submitted to them within 30 days after the receipt.

This amendment was submitted to the Washington convention and received the unqualified indorsement of the delegates, but was later turned down by the publishers' association. And as a result of this action the executive council was empowered to draw up a code of procedure, to meet with the special standing committee of the publishers, and to adopt a code which would definitely outline the steps to be followed by an arbitration board. Both committees met shortly after and agreed upon a code which was required to be followed in all disputes arising in union composing rooms.

Addressing the printers' convention at St. Louis in 1904, Mr. Driscoll urged that the delegates amend their laws so that unskilled

[10] Tracy, George A.: History of the International Typographical Union. Indianapolis, 1913, p. 738.

[11] The first (1901) agreement, as shown on p. 18, provided that signers of the contract were entitled to the benefits of the agreement only in disputes arising after the expiration of 30 days from the time of signing. On renewal of the agreement in 1902, this period was extended to 60 days.

labor might be performed by nonunion men; it was also his opinion that a foreman should not be compelled to be a member of the union, but that he should be free "to fulfill his duty to his employer," and not "trammeled with priority lists, 'sub' lists, and appeals and fines by the union." [12] In reply to this appeal the delegates pointed out that there was no national priority law on the statute books, and that there was no provision which forbade nonunion men to perform unskilled labor. The convention, however, did not allow the publishers' request that foremen be nonunion men. Moreover, it was explicitly declared that the union rules were never intended to deprive the foreman of a "free hand," or prevent him from fulfilling his obligation to his employer.

The national arbitration board, at a meeting held July 21–24, 1904, rendered an important decision, dispelling the erroneous idea held by some printers and publishers that a foreman could not discharge an employee for "just cause." The case grew out of the dismissal of a compositor by the foreman of the Denver News-Times, and the demand of the chapel [13] that the discharged worker be immediately reinstated. The board ruled that the foreman of a composing room had the unqualified right to dismiss an employee for causes enumerated in the union laws,[14] but held that the chapel could not be denied the right to demand his reinstatement. But should the foreman refuse reinstatement, the decision continued, the chapel must take its grievance to the local union, through the usual channels; and if the local sustained the chapel's action the foreman, under the typographical laws, had the right of appeal. Even when the foreman complied with the demand of reinstatement, he still had the right of appeal. Should, however, the foreman refuse to reinstate on the demand of the chapel indorsed by the highest court, then the establishment would be liable to reimburse the man or men for all time lost.

An entirely unexpected move had occurred in the latter part of 1901, when the Photoengravers' Union withdrew from the International Typographical Union, organized an international body of its own, and appeared before Commissioner Driscoll, demanding recognition as an independent union. Mr. Driscoll refused the request on the ground that he did not want to encourage factional disputes within the parent body. But, in December, 1905, when the engravers had established a permanent organization, he negotiated an arbitration agreement with them to expire May 1, 1907.[5]

Third Agreement, May 1, 1907, to May 1, 1912.

AS A result of six years of experience with arbitration, it was found necessary to incorporate radical changes in the third agreement, which became effective May 1, 1907. Under previous contracts the national court had consisted of the commissioner of the publishers' association, the president of the International Typographical Union, and, if these two failed to reach a satisfactory agreement, a third member. Local boards were also composed of

[5] American Newspaper Publishers' Association Bulletin on Organization, Indianapolis.
[12] Tracy, George A.: History of the International Typographical Union. Indianapolis, 1913, p. 773.
[13] Union rules require that compositors employed in each office form a chapter, or chapel, elect a chairman, and meet at least once a month.
[14] International Typographical Union. General Laws, sec. 108; Book of Laws, 1917, sec. 121.

two representatives, one from each party, and if they disagreed, a third person was added. This arrangement, however, had not worked out as expected, and had proved to be a disappointment to both groups. Experience had demonstrated that the third person, who generally presided, was usually chosen not for his technical qualifications but for his supposed impartiality. This condition often gave rise to decisions that were acceptable neither to the publishers nor to the union. So finally, after several conferences between the special standing committee and the executive council, it was agreed to incorporate in the new contract a provision eliminating all outside persons and providing that the national arbitration board should consist of three members of the special standing committee and three members of the executive council of the typographical union. Moreover, a stipulation allowing disputes to be taken directly to the national board was included in the third pact. It was also ruled that local boards should consist of four arbitrators, two from the publishers and two from the union.

The new contract was indorsed by the delegates at the Colorado Springs Convention held in 1906. It was broader in scope than any of the preceding documents. It provided for disputes arising over wages, hours, and working conditions, excepting such as were governed by international union laws, with a further provision that the union laws adopted during the life of the national arbitration contract should not affect that contract. Moreover, the pact declared that all conditions in effect at the initiation of a dispute should remain in force unchanged until the question in dispute was finally settled.

By mutual concurrence, amendments were made to the arbitration agreement and the code of procedure at meetings held by the national board during June and September, 1909. Slight alterations were made in sections 4 and 5 of the arbitration pact and in sections 7 and 18 of the code of procedure. These modifications greatly facilitated the labors of the board, in that cases involving wage disputes were required first to be considered by the local board and could reach the national board only in the form of an appeal. Differences arising over the interpretation of contracts, however, were permitted to come directly to the major body. Otherwise, disputes had to be adjusted in the jurisdiction in which they arose, except when the local board could not agree and had appealed the case.

What was regarded as the most serious stoppage since the adoption of the arbitration plan occurred in Chicago, when 200 men employed on the Chicago Examiner and Chicago American suddenly walked out without first submitting their grievances to arbitration. The strike arose over the measurement of type set on the linotype machine. The ruling of the local union, which backed both chapels in their walkout, was that the line should be measured 13 ems wide, whereas the office sought to pay the men on the 12½-em basis, the actual width of the slug.[15] When the news reached the national office, the members of the executive council hurried to Chicago, and after publicly disavowing the strike, ironed out the differences and censured the men who had left their machines. The strikers then

[15] Type is measured by a unit called a pica, which is one-sixth of an inch.

returned to work. Once more the national board proved its mettle and effectiveness in maintaining peace after the local board had failed.

On the death of Mr. Driscoll, the publishers' association selected H. N. Kellogg, then business manager of the New York Tribune, to fill the vacancy on the special standing committee. And upon the resignation of Alexander A. McCormick the former was made chairman of the special standing committee, thus eliminating the post formerly held by Mr. Driscoll.

Fourth Agreement, May 1, 1912, to May 1, 1917.

SINCE the industry had now experienced 11 years of satisfactory contractual relationship, a period marked by a gradual reduction in the number of working hours to eight per day and a general increase in wages throughout the entire jurisdiction of the International Union (resulting, with the aid of the linotype, in more than doubling production in the newspaper composing room), it was no longer necessary to argue the practicability of arbitration. It was now an established institution in every progressive newspaper office, for it demonstrated conclusively that a secure and well-paid worker could set more type in 8 hours than a dissatisfied and underpaid man in 10. Moreover, there could no longer be any doubt that the principle of arbitration was unquestionably sound and that it was indispensable in the publishing industry, if industrial peace and good will were to be maintained. That arbitration had proved its worth was attested by the fact that by the close of 1912 the American Newspaper Publishers' Association had in operation a total of 416 individual arbitration contracts—217 with typographical unions, 108 with stereotypers' unions, 47 with mailers' unions,[16] and 44 with photoengravers' unions.[5]

Fundamental changes were made in the code of procedure incorporated in the fourth agreement. The experience of the past five years had proved beyond cavil that a radical revision was needed in the code. The local arbitration boards not only failed to agree on cases brought before them, but they often refused to consider even minor disputes arising in their jurisdictions, preferring that the cases go directly to the national board, and thus enable them to evade responsibility entirely. This shifting of disputes from the local to the national board produced many perplexing difficulties, for the latter board found it impossible to cope with the large number of requests for arbitration, most of which were of a purely local character and could have been adjusted more equitably and with greater dispatch by the local body. Amendments, therefore, were made in sections 5, 7, and 12 of the code with but slight modifications in the arbitration pact, ostensibly to end this abuse, by providing for compulsory local settlement of cases which were subject to local adjudication. Under the new provision local decisions were assured, and responsibility for the conduct of a case would rest mainly upon the local parties to the arbitration.

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[5] American Newspaper Publishers' Association Bulletin on Organization, Indianapolis.
[16] Mailers' unions are affiliated with the International Typographical Union.

To prevent deadlocks and stimulate satisfactory awards by local boards, representatives of the publishers and of the typographical union agreed to increase the membership of local boards, making the number five—(1) a direct delegate of the union; (2) a direct delegate of the association; (3) a person, not a member of a trade-union, selected by the union delegate; (4) a person not connected with the industry selected by the publishers' delegate; and (5) a chairman, selected by the other four members. Thus the board was to consist of two delegates and three impartial men, thereby eliminating the fundamental cause of nondecisions. Consequently, appeals from local boards to the national tribunal were reduced to a minimum.

After the fourth agreement became operative, a few subordinate unions refused to renew their contracts. This hostile attitude embarrassed the remaining locals, whose delegates had indorsed the principle of arbitration. Subsequently, the executive council publicly stated that it was the fixed policy of the international union to submit all disputes to arbitration. The council believed that in plants where an agreement was in force the machinery for arbitration would eventually be worked out to the satisfaction of both parties; whereas in those offices where there was no such agreement and arbitration was offered as a last resort, arbitration would be local in nature and conducted under the rules and methods formulated for the particular case to be adjusted. The officials, furthermore, declared that a trade-union should not, in defiance of public opinion, refuse to accept the principle of arbitration. Moreover, the unions subscribing to the principle felt that they should not be taxed to support strikes and lockouts which arose over wage scales, which could have been settled amicably by arbitration.[17]

So firmly was arbitration established in the newspaper industry that numerous subordinate unions and publishers without arbitration contracts repeatedly applied to the chairman of the special standing committee or to the national union officers for assistance in adjusting differences regarding wage scales, hours, or working conditions. But the decision of the chairman of the committee had not been binding upon the publisher, if he refused, until December, 1914, when the chairman, with the sanction of the board of directors of the association, ruled that when a publisher without an arbitration agreement applied to the special standing committee for assistance, and received it, he had to abide by the decision of the board.

Fifth Agreement, May 1, 1917, to May 1, 1922.

WITH but a single important modification in the code of procedure the agreement adopted five years before was allowed to remain in force when the time came to renew the agreement. The new amendment struck out the words "one such representative of each contending party to be free from personal connection or direct interest in any newspaper or any labor union."

At a joint conference of the publishers' representatives and the executive council, it was further agreed that the laws of the international union in effect January 1, 1916, should not be subject to

[17] The Bulletin, Indianapolis, June, 1917, supplement, p. 291. Organ of International Typographical Union.

arbitration, but that any changes made in those laws relating to wages, hours, and working conditions should not become operative in existing individual contracts without the concurrence of both parties, and should not affect the international arbitration agreement until approved by the national board of arbitration.

The text of the agreement, which expired on April 30, 1922, and of the code of procedure, are as follows:

ARBITRATION AGREEMENT.

SECTION 1. On and after May 1, 1917, and until April 30, 1922, inclusive, any member of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association conducting a union department under the jurisdiction of the International Typographical Union shall have the guaranties hereinafter set forth when the requirements of this arbitration agreement are observed. This agreement shall cover all contracts with local unions, whether in writing or oral understandings. Oral understandings shall be understood as applying to instances wherein union scales are being paid, but where there are no written agreements covering specified periods of time. Such oral understandings which are not for a definite period may be terminated by either side on 30 days' notice in writing. This agreement shall embrace all contracts of either form which are in effect on April 30, 1917, and contracts of subsequent date which have been approved by the president of the International Typographical Union.

SEC. 2. To acquire the protection of this agreement an individual arbitration contract must be executed in quadruplicate in the form prescribed in this agreement. The holder of such individual arbitration contract shall be entitled to the protection guaranteed by the provisions of this agreement and the terms of the individual arbitration contract in respect to any contract such member may have with a local union of the International Typographical Union.

SEC. 3. Any publisher who holds an individual arbitration contract under the prior agreement between the parties hereto which terminates May 1, 1917, shall be protected hereunder if, before May 1, 1917, he shall have secured an individual arbitration contract in accordance with the provisions of this agreement, as set forth in section 1 of the code of procedure.

SEC. 4. Subject to the conditions hereinbefore prescribed, every member of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association holding an individual arbitration contract shall have the following guaranties:

(a) He shall be protected against walkouts, strikes or boycotts by the members of the union or unions with which he has contractual relation under this agreement and against any other form of concerted interference by them with the usual and regular operation of any of his departments of labor.

(b) In the event of a difference arising between a publisher having an individual arbitration contract and any local union a party thereto, all work shall continue without interruption pending proceedings looking to conciliation or arbitration, either local or international, and the wages, hours, or working conditions prevailing at the time the difference arises shall be preserved unchanged until a final decision of the matter at issue shall be reached.

(c) All differences which can not be settled by conciliation shall be referred to arbitration in the manner stipulated in this agreement.

SEC. 5. All differences arising under an existing written contract, or an oral understanding, which involve the application of the international arbitration agreement, the code of procedure, or any clause or clauses in contracts, or the interpretation to be placed upon any part or parts of any agreements which can not be settled by conciliation shall be referred to local arbitration if so required by the local contract, but if not shall be submitted to the chairman of the special standing committee of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association and the president of the International Typographical Union, together with the arguments and briefs of both parties, and an agreed statement of facts in the controversy, accompanied by a joint letter of transmissal certifying that each party is familiar with the contents of all documents. In case these two officials can not reach a decision upon the issues involved their differences shall be submitted to the international board of arbitration.

SEC. 6. All differences other than those specified in section 5 of this agreement, including disagreements arising in negotiations for a new scale of wages, or for hours of labor, or in renewing or extending an existing scale, or in respect to a contract, which

can not be settled by conciliation, shall be referred to a local board of arbitration in the manner stipulated in the code of procedure as set forth in exhibit "B."

SEC. 7. The question whether a department shall be union or nonunion shall not be classed as a "difference" to be arbitrated. Union departments shall be understood to mean such as are made up of union employees and in which the union has been formally recognized by the employer.

SEC. 8. If either party to a local arbitration shall be dissatisfied with a decision by a local board, appeal may be taken to the international board of arbitration to be constituted as hereinafter provided. Such appeal may also be taken to the international board by either party if for any cause a decision shall not have been rendered by a local board within 90 days after the questions to be arbitrated have been duly determined under the code of procedure.

SEC. 9. Local union laws not affecting wages, hours, or working conditions and the laws of the International Typographical Union in effect January 1, 1916, shall not be subject to the provisions of this arbitration agreement, but all changes in and any new International Typographical Union laws thereafter adopted that affect wages, hours, or working conditions shall not be operative until accepted by the international board of arbitration. All differences regarding or arising under such laws shall be referred to the international board of arbitration: *Provided*, That international or local laws enacted subsequent to the execution of an individual arbitration or local contract shall not affect either contract during its life, except by mutual agreement.

SEC. 10. The international board of arbitration shall consist of three members of the executive council of the International Typographical Union and the three members of the special standing committee of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, or their proxies. This board shall meet at such time and place as may be determined by it. Due notice of time and place of meeting of the international board shall be given all interested parties. If the board as thus constituted is unable, after considering a case at two meetings, to reach a decision, the membership of the board may be increased by unanimous vote, by the addition of a seventh and disinterested member, who shall act only on the matters that made his selection necessary, and who shall have the same standing as the other members, and shall act with them at the earliest possible date after his appointment.

SEC. 11. The award of the international board of arbitration in all cases shall include a determination of all the issues involved; it shall cover the full period between the raising of the issues and their final settlement; any change in the wage scale may be made effective from the date the issue first arose at the discretion of the board. An award by the majority of the international board shall be final, and shall be accepted as such by the parties to the dispute.

SEC. 12. At the request of either party to an arbitration the international board shall determine whether evasion, collusion, or fraud has characterized either the local or international proceedings, or whether either party has failed to comply with, or refuses to fulfill its obligations under a decision, or has omitted to perform any duty prescribed therein, or has secured any unfair or fraudulent advantage, or has evaded any provision of this agreement or any rule of the code of procedure, or is not acting in good faith. At the conclusion of such inquiry it shall be wholly within the power of the international board to reject all that has been previously done and order a rehearing before the international board, or before a new local board; or it may find against the offending party or annul the individual arbitration contract. In the event of either party to a dispute refusing to accept and comply with a decision of a local board which is not appealed, or with a decision of the international board, or with any of the provisions of this international arbitration agreement, as determined by a decision of the international board, all aid and support to the employer or the local union refusing acceptance and compliance shall be withdrawn by both parties to this agreement. The acts of such recalcitrant employer or union shall be publicly disavowed and the aggrieved party shall be furnished by the other with an official document to that effect.

SEC. 13. The form of individual arbitration contract set forth in exhibit "A" and the code of procedure set forth in exhibit "B" are hereby made a part of this agreement and shall be as binding on the parties hereto as if the same were set forth at length herein.

SEC. 14. This agreement shall remain in effect from the first day of May, 1917, to the 30th day of April, 1922, inclusive, but amendments may be proposed at any meeting of the international board of arbitration by either party hereto, and on acceptance by the other party to this agreement shall become a part hereof.

Exhibit A.

INDIVIDUAL ARBITRATION CONTRACT.

It is agreed between....., proprietor of the ....., party of the first part, and ..... Union No. ....., of ....., party of the second part, by its president duly authorized to act in its behalf, as follows:

SECTION 1. In the event of any difference arising between the parties to this contract which can not be adjusted by conciliation, such difference shall be submitted to arbitration under the code of procedure provided by the international arbitration agreement, effective May 1, 1917, between the American Newspaper Publishers' Association and the International Typographical Union.

SEC. 2. This contract shall cover any contract between the parties of the first and second parts whether the same is in writing or an oral understanding, subject to the conditions expressed in the international arbitration agreement, effective May 1, 1917, between the American Newspaper Publishers' Association and the International Typographical Union.

SEC. 3. It is expressly understood and agreed that the international arbitration agreement and the code of procedure, both hereunto attached, between the American Newspaper Publishers' Association and the International Typographical Union shall be integral parts of this contract and shall have the same force and effect as though set forth in the contract itself.

SEC. 4. The parties hereto specifically authorize the executive council of the International Typographical Union and the special standing committee of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association to give public disavowal of any failure to comply with this contract as provided in section 12 of the international arbitration agreement.

This contract shall be in full force and effect on the ..... day of ....., 19...., and continue until the 30th day of April, 1922, inclusive.

Exhibit B.

CODE OF PROCEDURE.

SECTION 1. If a publisher holding an individual arbitration contract under the prior agreement between the parties hereto, which terminates May 1, 1917, desires to secure continuous protection, he shall, not later than March 1, 1917, notify the president of the union operating in the department he wishes the contract to cover of his desire to secure an individual arbitration contract to be effective from May 1, 1917, to April 30, 1922, inclusive. If the issuance of an individual arbitration contract as above is satisfactory to the said union, the parties shall execute in quadruplicate an individual arbitration contract, as set forth in exhibit "A," before May 1, 1917. Publishers of this class securing individual arbitration contracts effective from May 1, 1917, until April 30, 1922, inclusive, shall have continuous protection for the departments to which said individual arbitration contracts apply.

SEC. 2. If a publisher shall not have had an individual arbitration contract of date prior to May 1, 1917, but shall have secured a contract on that or some date subsequent thereto, this code of procedure shall apply to all differences between such publisher and the union covered by the individual arbitration contract. A publisher desiring an individual arbitration contract shall notify the president of the union operating in the department he wishes the contract to cover of his desire to secure an individual arbitration contract to be effective until April 30, 1922, inclusive. If the issuance of an individual arbitration contract as set forth is satisfactory to said union, the parties shall execute in quadruplicate an individual arbitration contract as set forth in Exhibit "A."

SEC. 3. An issue is raised at the time a written request is made by either party presenting in detail changes in conditions desired.

SEC. 4. The two parties in interest must have a conference as soon as possible and not later than thirty-five (35) days after an issue is raised, at which conference (or continuations thereof) every effort to agree shall be made. The party upon whom the original demand is made should, if it contemplates presenting a counterproposition, formulate it in full and in detail as soon as possible after the receipt of the demand of the proponent party, the said counterproposition to be presented to the party making the original demand with as little delay as possible, and in any event within the same period of thirty-five (35) days. The propositions of both sides should be considered, discussed, and earnest efforts made to arrive at an agreement by conciliation. If no agreement is reached within sixty (60) days after an issue is raised, upon the de-

mand of either party the statements required by section 5 of this code shall be prepared and forwarded within five (5) days. If arbitration is decided upon, arbitration to be conducted on the sections of the propositions originally submitted, which are approved for arbitration as provided in section 5 of this code.

SEC. 5. Upon failure to agree, each party shall prepare its statement, embracing the conditions that it seeks to establish. Each statement must be complete in itself and copies thereof shall be forwarded to the chairman of the special standing committee of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association and the president of the International Typographical Union, accompanied by a letter of transmittal, to be signed jointly by the parties in interest, certifying that they are acquainted with the contents of both statements. The chairman and president shall thereupon determine the questions or subjects which can be properly submitted to arbitration, and shall promptly notify by joint letters the interested parties of their decision. In case the two officials can not agree, their differences shall be submitted to the international board of arbitration.

SEC. 6. After the questions to be arbitrated have been determined, a local board of arbitration must be formed, composed of residents of the locality in which the controversy arises, two members thereof to be named by each side. The board as thus constituted shall select a secretary from among its members. The four members of the board shall then choose an additional member, who shall be a disinterested person and shall act as chairman of the board. If the chairman of the local board shall not have been selected within thirty (30) days after the questions to be arbitrated have been determined, he shall be named by the chairman of the special standing committee of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association and the president of the International Typographical Union, or their proxies, upon the request of either of the interested parties. The two officials named, or their proxies, may for this purpose visit the locality if they deem it necessary. Any expense thus incurred shall be defrayed equally by the parties to the controversy. The chairman of the local board shall preside, put motions, etc., and shall be entitled to vote on all propositions which may properly come before the board in open session. He shall declare a motion carried only when at least three of the arbitrators shall have voted affirmatively thereon. At the conclusion of the hearing the chairman shall retire and the other members of the board shall go into executive session and immediately take up a consideration of the issues involved. If in executive session a tie vote occurs on any proposition, or if there are any differences, questions or propositions which do not receive the votes of three of the four original members of the board, the chairman shall be called in to cast the deciding votes on all unsettled questions or propositions.

SEC. 7. After the local board of arbitration has been organized it shall proceed forthwith to conduct its hearings under the following rules:

1. It may demand duplicate typewritten statements of grievances.
2. It may examine all parties involved in any differences referred to it for adjudication.
3. It shall employ such stenographers, etc., as may be necessary to facilitate business and to provide a record for use in the event of an appeal, said record to be properly paged and indexed.
4. It may require affidavits on all disputed points.
5. It shall have free access to all books and records bearing on points at issue.
6. Equal opportunity shall be allowed for presentation of evidence and argument.
7. In event of either party to the dispute refusing to appear or present its case after due notice, it may be adjudged in default, and decision shall then be rendered against such party.
8. All evidence communicated to the board in confidence shall be preserved inviolate and no record of such evidence shall be kept, except for use on appeal, in which case such inviolability shall be preserved.
9. The party making the original demand shall have the right to present its case and evidence without interruption, excepting that when oral evidence is introduced cross-examination of witnesses shall be allowed. The opposing party shall have the same right in turn. The first party shall then have the right to present evidence strictly in rebuttal and the opposing party shall be allowed to present counterevidence strictly in surrebuttal. Oral arguments may be limited to one speech on each side after all evidence has been presented. Said oral arguments to be made in the same order as above provided for the presentation of evidence. If objection is made by either party to the admission of any evidence offered by the other party, the board, by vote, shall decide as to the admissibility of the evidence in question. Written pleadings, instead of oral arguments, shall be allowed when agreed upon by the parties to the controversy, or when ordered by the local board of arbitration.

10. In case of the inability of either side to present evidence at the moment, the order may be varied to the extent of allowing such evidence to be presented at such session as may be agreed upon by the parties to the controversy, or as may be ordered by the local board of arbitration. No evidence shall be received or considered that was not presented at a regular open session of the board, except that it shall be allowable for the members of the board, in any case, to visit any office in a body to see the operation of labor therein, or for any other necessary purpose, to aid in arriving at a just decision.

11. There shall be an agreement by at least a majority of the members of the board as to the exact time and place of hearing, of which both parties shall be notified in season. The session shall be continuous, except for necessary intermissions, until the hearing is concluded.

SEC. 8. When a hearing is concluded the board shall, without unnecessary delay, and as set forth in section 6 of this code, go into executive session, from which all persons except the four original members of the board shall be excluded, for the determination of its award. In its deliberation, the transcript of the stenographic report shall be accepted as the best evidence of what occurred at the hearing, unless it be shown that gross errors exist in said transcript. Should the four members be unable to decide upon the award, the chairman shall be called in, as provided in section 6 of this code. The award of the board must be formulated and signed by all of the members thereof at a regular executive session, after there has been full opportunity for consideration and discussion, the date and time of such session having previously been determined at a full meeting of the local board. If any member of the local board dissents from the award and wishes to file a dissenting opinion, he shall give immediate notice to that effect, and shall, within forty-eight (48) hours after the award has been decided upon, and before it has been promulgated, formulate his reasons for dissenting, and such opinion must be signed by him before final adjournment at a regular executive session, arranged for as above provided. Such dissenting opinion, when thus signed, must be attached to the award.

SEC. 9. The local board shall not be compelled to set forth its reasons for making the award, but may do so in the written award only. In framing its award the findings shall be expressed in detail, to the end that no misunderstanding shall afterward occur. An award of a local board shall be for at least one year, but a local board may provide that its award shall be effective for a longer period, not to exceed three years; provided there is no local agreement as to time.

SEC. 10. All expenses of a local arbitration board shall be divided equally between the union and the other interested party or parties.

NATIONAL ARBITRATION.

SEC. 11. When either party to a local arbitration shall desire to appeal to the international board, written notice to that effect must be given to the other party within five (5) days after the local decision has been rendered, and the appeal shall be filed with the international board within thirty (30) days after such decision. When an appeal is under consideration by the international board of arbitration it shall not take evidence, but both parties to the controversy may appear personally or may submit the records and briefs of the local hearing and make oral or written arguments in support of their several contentions. They may submit an agreed statement of facts, or a transcript of testimony, properly certified to before a notary public by the stenographer taking the original evidence or depositions.

SEC. 12. The international board of arbitration must act when its services are desired by either party to an appeal as above, and shall proceed with all possible dispatch in rendering such services.

SEC. 13. So far as applicable, the rules of procedure governing local arbitration boards shall govern the international board of arbitration.

SEC. 14. Should either party to a local or international arbitration desire to make an allegation against the other as provided in section 12 of the international arbitration agreement, the complaint shall be prepared in writing and in quadruplicate. A copy thereof shall be delivered by registered mail to the chairman of the special standing committee of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, to the president of the International Typographical Union, and to the party against whom the complaint is made.

SEC. 15. All awards of the international board of arbitration, excepting those made under section 5 of the international arbitration agreement, shall be for at least one year, but the international board of arbitration may provide that its awards shall be effective for a longer period, not to exceed three years; provided there is no local agreement as to time.

SEC. 16. All expenses attendant upon the settlement of any case before the international board of arbitration shall be adjusted in each case in accordance with the directions of the international board of arbitration.

SEC. 17. These rules and this code may be amended at any meeting of the international board of arbitration in accordance with the method prescribed in section 14 of the international arbitration agreement.

Agreement Since May 1, 1922.

THE international arbitration agreement, expiring on May 1, 1922, has not yet been renewed, although the machinery set up has continued to function and relations between the parties appear in no way strained. The difficulty in the way of continuation of the contract arose over section 9, which provides that the laws of the International Typographical Union in effect January 1, 1916, shall not be subject to arbitration. The publishers contended that all issues should be submitted to arbitration and refused to subscribe longer to this section of the agreement.

The particular union law to which the publishers took exception concerns the exchange of matrices and reads as follows:

> The interchanging, exchanging, borrowing, lending, or buying of matter previously used, either in the form of type or matrices, between newspapers, between job offices, or between newspapers and job offices, or vice versa, not owned by the same individual, firm, or corporation and published in the same establishment, is unlawful, and shall not be allowed, unless such type or matrices are reset as nearly like the original as possible, made up, read, and corrected and a proof submitted to the chairman of the office. Transfer of matter between a newspaper office and a job office, or a job office and a newspaper office, where conducted as separate institutions, and from separate composing rooms owned by the same individual, firm, or corporation, is not permissible unless such matter is reset as nearly like the original as possible, made up, read, and corrected, and a proof submitted to the chairman of the office: *Provided*, That where an interchange of matter from an English publication to a foreign language publication, or vice versa, is desired, under the provisions of this section, such exchange shall be regulated by agreement between the employer and the local unions interested. The time limit within which borrowed or purchased matter, or matrices, are to be reset shall also be regulated by agreement between employers and local unions.[18]

The publishers contend that this law, which necessitates setting up in each office (of the chain papers as well as others) of matter of general interest, such as the Sunday magazine section, results in economic waste. The printers have held to the law on the ground that such exchange would throw out of work a large number of printers who had spent their years of apprenticeship and who were dependent upon the work for their livelihood. They supported it, too, on the ground that the saving resulting from such exchange would not be passed on to the public, but would go into the pockets of the publishers. They saw, also, possibilities of decrease in work in the general use of advertising matter, such as the advertisement sometimes covering a number of pages used by the department store in several Sunday papers. The executive officers of the union were bound by the law of the organization which provides: "It is imperatively ordered that the executive officers of the International Typographical Union shall not submit any of its laws to arbitration." They were unable, if they were inclined, to accede to this demand of the publishers until this law is amended by referendum vote.

[18] Sec. 179, Book of Laws of the International Typographical Union.

In some cities the union officials have acceded to the demand of the publishers for the exchange of matrices, because they can not supply men to do the work. The present demand for linotype operators so far exceeds the supply. Therefore harmonious relations are being maintained without difficulty and the urge for the renewal or revision of the agreement is not insistent.

Since the expiration of the contract, the international joint arbitration board has continued its settlement of cases arising prior to the expiration of the agreement, and now has under consideration questions as to its jurisdiction in cases arising under contracts or agreements which were negotiated under the international arbitration agreement.

Most of the local agreements between the International Typographical Union and the publishers provide for local arbitration. In some instances where there was no local agreement, or the local contract did not provide for local arbitration, special arbitration agreements have been concluded. Some such agreements specify that they will be superseded by the international agreement should such be negotiated.

Conclusion.

SO EFFECTIVE has been arbitration between the American Newspaper Publishers' Association and the International Typographical Union that during the past 20 years, with but few exceptions, there has been practically no serious interruption in the publication of any newspaper having an arbitration agreement with a subordinate union. And by January 1, 1920, the publishers' association reported a total of 288 arbitration contracts with composing rooms and 56 with mailing rooms, which employed members of the typographical union exclusively.

Many wage scale negotiations, which, without an arbitration contract, would unquestionably have resulted in strikes or lockouts, have been settled satisfactorily to both parties, thereby preventing financial loss to both employer and employee. And since its inception, arbitration has been repeatedly indorsed by both printers and publishers as being the most useful instrument for maintaining peace in the newspaper industry.

Mr. H. N. Kellogg, chairman of the special standing committee of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, writes as follows: [19]

> My view of arbitration contracts is that they have been a great benefit to publishers of this country and to the unions of the printing trades that have had such contracts. They have, almost without exception, brought about a better understanding between local parties wherever they have been put in effect, have operated almost invariably to prevent interruptions of business or service, and when differences have occurred that were impossible of settlement otherwise have brought solutions which while not always satisfactory to either or both sides, have in almost every case been operated under. Another very noticeable effect of these agreements has been that after signing them, local parties seem much more disposed to adjust their differences by conciliation than before, with the result that while hundreds of members of the association have had arbitration agreements for many years, the total number increasing each year, the cases submitted to the international arbitration board for settlement have not averaged more than 25 each year, but in quite a number of instances cases have been considered at several meetings before final settlement.

[19] Excerpt from letter to the writer, Mar. 13, 1920.

The opinion of Mr. J. W. Hays, secretary-treasurer of the International Typographical Union, is as follows:[20]

A list of the International Typographical Union beneficial features would not be complete if it did not include reference to our arbitration policy and its success. Four agreements covering more than 19 years have been effective, and during this period we have made continual advancement as to hours, wages, and conditions. In 95 per cent of the cases coming before the arbitration boards our members have secured betterments. While the arbitration agreement has been with the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, this policy has permeated all of our dealings with employers. An era of industrial peace almost, if not entirely, unprecedented in industrial annals, has been ours under the arbitration agreement.

The agreement was last renewed to be effective for five years from May 1, 1917, and we anticipate an additional period of pleasant and profitable relations with the members of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, and resultant good effect in our relations with our other employers.

The principle of arbitration had been indorsed by the closed shop division of the United Typothetae and Franklin Clubs of America, but America's entrance into the World War in 1917 delayed, until a more favorable time, its being put into operation in the shops of the members. When arbitration is adopted in the book and job branch of the industry, as it is now in the newspaper composing rooms, strikes and lockouts and other industrial warfare in the industry will have been reduced to a minimum, if not wholly abolished.

In conclusion, it may be helpful to sum up the arbitration history of the publishers and printers, and state some of the outstanding facts as deduced from the above analysis.

1. Arbitration agreements between the publishers' association and the typographical union have practically abolished strikes and lockouts in the newspaper composing room.
2. Publishers are assured continuous publication.
3. The mere existence of arbitration machinery prevents rash and hasty action on the part of both sides, and insures impartial and reasonable consideration of the issues involved.
4. Arbitration has produced a wholesome influence on the relations between newspaper publishers and labor unions.
5. Publishers and unions show a greater desire to settle difficulties informally, and directly, rather than resort to the slower and more formal process of arbitration.
6. The success of the five arbitration contracts between the American Newspaper Publishers' Association and the International Typographical Union presents a strong argument for voluntary arbitration.

[20] Facts concerning the International Typographical Union beneficial features, etc., p. 8. Circular of International Typographical Union, Indianapolis, Ind.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS AND LABOR CONDITIONS.

Agricultural Wage Earners in France.[1]

By VICTORIA B. TURNER.

UNTIL comparatively recent times France was mainly an agricultural country, the extraordinary variety of soil, climate, and general conditions found within its borders being particularly conducive to the development of agriculture. The principal crops grown are cereals, potatoes, sugar beets, tobacco, vegetables, fruit, flax, hemp, and hops. Included also among the important agricultural industries are cattle raising and grape growing. Only a small proportion of the agricultural products of France is exported, most of the crops being grown to supply domestic needs. The effects of the war, however, have been especially marked in the case of agriculture, and for this reason no attempt will be made to give such production statistics as are available. That heroic efforts are being made to restore French agriculture to its former importance is well known.

Land Divisions.

THE area of France in 1920, including the Departments of Alsace and Lorraine, was 54,406,620 hectares (134,438,758 acres), divided agriculturally as follows:

	Hectares.[2]
Arable land (under cultivation, fallow, and meadow)	22,590,461
Natural fields	5,022,690
Herbage	1,722,610
Grazing and pasture land	4,131,860
Vineyards	1,578,696
Market gardens	295,960
Nurseries	876,420
Forests	10,328,251
Uncultivated land	4,648,160
Other land	3,211,512
Total	54,406,620

The French peasant has ever striven, above everything else, to become the possessor of a bit of land, however small. And so the tendency has been, ever since pre-Revolutionary times, toward an excessive subdivision of landed property. Before the World War, of some 5,300,000 holdings, 4,500,000, it is said, were less than 10 hectares (24.71 acres) in size, and more than 2,000,000 of these less than 1 hectare (2.47 acres) each in extent.

[1] Except where otherwise noted, the data on which this article is based are from France, Bureau de la Statistique Générale, Annuaire statistique, 1921, and Bulletin, July, 1921; France, Ministère du Travail, Bulletins for March and April, 1920, and January, February, and March, 1923; France, Journal Officiel, issues of Nov. 1, 1919, and Apr. 23, 1921; L'Information Sociale, Paris, Apr. 5, 1923; International Review of Agricultural Economics, Rome, issues of November, 1920, January, February, March, April, November, and December, 1921, and January, February, and September, 1922; Fédération Nationale des Travailleurs de l'Agriculture, 1er congrès tenu à Limoges, Apr. 4-6, 1920 (Paris, 1920); Association Française pour la lutte contre le chômage et pour l'organisation du marché du travail, Bul. No. 35, Le main-d'oeuvre agricole en France, Paris, 1920; Le paysan français après la guerre, by Michel Augé-Laribé, Paris, 1923; and Consular Report No. 83500, dated at Paris, Jan. 15, 1923.

[2] Hectare=2.471 acres.

This minute partition of French territory was especially apparent in what became the "devastated regions." Thus in Aisne, for instance, out of 66,000 holdings, 31,000 were under 1 hectare; in Nord a similar condition existed, 42,600 out of 86,500 holdings comprising less than 2½ acres each. Examples of this sort might be multiplied. Among the plots less than 1 hectare in area some were extremely small. As a rule there were three or four plots to the hectare.

The awful wreck of war, however, obliterated the original boundaries of many of the small holdings, and as a result it has been found both less tedious and less costly to consolidate the holdings than to restore their former demarcations. With this end in view a law was passed March 4, 1919, providing that if, in any commune, the boundaries of plots of land without buildings had been obliterated or confused, the prefect, after consultation with the mayor, could issue an order for the redistribution of the holdings. Such action could be taken, however, only on the advice of a departmental committee on redistribution of holdings, which committee in turn must have received a request for such action from a communal committee of the same character.

The work of consolidation has already been undertaken in a number of places, and the importance of the results obtained thus far from the application of the law may be seen in some general figures for the Department of the Somme. On the 1st of April, 1922, consolidation of holdings had been effected in 30 communes. The total number of parcels of land had been reduced from 45,560 to 9,463, the average area per plot being increased from 37 ares (0.925 acre) to 1.79 hectares (4.42 acres). The experiment, though of short duration, is said to be proving satisfactory in that a three-fold saving of time, labor, and money has been obtained in the cultivation of the larger tracts.

The initial fear of the peasants that in the redistribution of holdings the large owners would profit at the expense of the small ones was not well founded, for several reasons: The number of owners is not reduced, but the property of each of them is consolidated. An effort is made to give to the small cultivator plots of land near his home so that he can use his spare moments most advantageously. Many a peasant had from time to time invested his hard-earned, slowly acquired savings in a number of small separated pieces of land at prices greatly in excess of the amount necessary to have purchased originally a tract of land having the same area as the combined extent of his several plots. A saving will be made here for those willing to undertake the cultivation of larger tracts. And there still remain, it is said, a sufficient number of small tracts for those agricultural laborers who can buy and cultivate only small areas.

As a means of developing intensive cultivation of the soil, of encouraging individual peasant ownership of the land, and of obviating the lack of agricultural labor, France has for many years maintained a system of agricultural credit, too complicated for description here, for the purchase and equipment of small holdings. The system has always applied to the whole country; but since the war even more liberal legislation has been enacted to assist especially

the people of the devastated regions in the reconstruction of their ruined farms. The law of October 31, 1919, for instance, authorized Departments and communes to acquire rural land and estates, to divide them into lots, and to resell them on long-term loans at low interest under the following conditions:

(1) The area of the land to be utilized as sites for family dwellings must not exceed 10 ares (0.25 acre).

(2) The value of the land designed for small farms must not exceed 10,000 francs ($1,930, par) whatever the area of the land.

In the allocation of the lots the character of the applicant and the size of his family, as well as the provision he has made for payment, are taken into account. Payment must be made in cash. The land can not be disposed of for a period of 10 years. If it is purchased as a family home, its use can not be diverted to any other purpose; if bought for a small farm the purchaser and his family must engage to cultivate it themselves. The law provides, further, that the Department or commune making the sale must neither gain nor lose on the transaction.

A law dated April 19, 1921, authorizes mortgage companies to grant mortgage loans to individuals to facilitate the acquisition, equipment, transformation, and reconstruction of small rural holdings whose value is not over 40,000 francs ($7,720, par). Whatever their size may be the amount of the loans must not exceed four-fifths of the value of the holding, including the price of the dwelling but excluding the expenses and the premium on a life-insurance policy which the purchaser must take out as security for the repayment of his loan in the event of his death. The loaning companies may be assimilated to the regional agricultural credit banks and obtain special advances from the State.

Other recent legislation testifying to the French Government's interest in this matter provides for the establishment of mutual agricultural loan banks to finance agricultural loans, grants special advances to the Departments and communes from the agricultural loan fund, encourages the settling of large families on the land, and reduces the rate of interest paid from 2 per cent to 1 per cent in case the purchaser is a military pensioner or a civil victim of the war.

Number and Classes of Agricultural Workers.

THE importance of the part of the population engaged in French agricultural pursuits is a natural corollary to the foregoing. Unfortunately the latest complete occupational statistics available for France are those of the census of 1911. At that time the total number of persons employed on the land was 8,517,230, as compared with the national population of 20,103,067 persons. The number and occupational status of each class are shown in the following table:

FRENCH AGRICULTURAL WORKERS IN 1911, BY CLASS AND SEX.

[Source: France. Bureau de la Statistique Générale. Résultats statistiques du recensement général de la population, 1911. Paris, 1913, part 3, pp. 60, 64.]

Class.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Employers:			
Owners, tenant farmers, and persons working on shares	2,802,601	2,317,224	5,119,825
Gardeners	70,334	29,305	99,639
Total	2,872,935	2,346,529	5,219,464
Employees:			
Day laborers	1,749,193	654,418	2,403,611
Farm servants	524,698	223,378	748,076
Carters	29,693	.....	29,693
Gardeners	102,956	13,430	116,386
Total	2,406,549	891,226	[1] 3,297,766
Grand total	5,279,475	3,237,755	8,517,230

[1] Includes 4,851 unemployed at the time, as follows: Day laborers, 266; farm servants, 3,139; carters, 98; gardeners, 1,348.

Exodus From the Land: Its Causes and Suggested Remedies.

AGRICULTURAL man power suffered great losses from the war, but in the absence of official data it is impossible to ascertain the present number of agricultural workers. Excluding 250,000 who replaced workers in urban industries, it is believed that owing to the war there was a loss in killed, disabled, and missing of from 1,100,000 to 1,300,000 persons.

To this enormous decrease may be added the gradual drift of workers from the rural districts which has continued over many years and which French economists attribute to the attractiveness of the higher wages and shorter hours prevailing in city industries, but especially to the lack of comfortable and sanitary housing and lodging accommodations and their accompanying mortality. According to a report made by the French Cheap Dwelling Society (*La société française des habitations à bon marché*) in 1914 and quoted in the Technical Survey of Agricultural Questions (pp. 470–480), issued by the International Labor Office in 1921, farm help hired by the year was usually lodged with the employers' families. Describing the accommodations furnished, the report states:

"* * * Almost everywhere the beds provided are of the most primitive kind," either a rough wooden framework or boards nailed together with a mattress filled with straw or hay; sometimes a feather bed. As a rule the farmer supplies for each bed two blankets; he also provides two sheets, but these are rarely changed. * * * A few farms may be found where it is customary to change the sheets once a fortnight. Usually in the better kept farms the farm servant has his sheets changed after they have been in use for one or two months, although in a considerable number of cases the rule of once in three or four months prevails. * * * "The majority of the rooms are small and ill ventilated," and the furniture is of the rudest description; indeed it would appear that furnishing, in the ordinary sense of the word, is not even attempted. * * *

* * * Generally speaking, there is no arrangement made to clean the workers' sleeping quarters, and the only farms where they were found to be satisfactorily kept are those in which a servant or the farmer's wife herself takes charge of the cleaning. Elsewhere care of the sleeping quarters is left to its occupants, and all the replies to the inquiry are agreed that in these conditions the elementary rules of health and cleanliness are disregarded. The cleaning of the rooms is neglected, the beds remain unmade for a week and more, and too frequently the tired worker goes to sleep in his clothes without giving a thought to the condition of his quarters.

While woman farm servants fared slightly better than men in respect to lodgings in that they usually occupied some room in the farmhouse and had better furniture, there was, the report says, plenty of room for improvement in their housing conditions. The shepherds, carters, cattlemen, drovers, and farm boys slept in the stables, the cowsheds, and the sheep folds, which are described as follows:

"In the stables or cattle shed a bed is set up usually without even a dividing partition. In other cases it is hung from the roof over the stalls or is raised on four posts and is reached by a ladder. The atmosphere which the sleeper breathes is therefore tainted with the exhalations of the animals." The report goes on to state that the mattress and bedding provided, both of the meanest description, soon becomes filthy.

Though the housing conditions just described are said to be the average furnished, some exceptions were found.

* * * Here and there farmers have housed their stockmen in small rooms, which although actually in the cattle shed are completely partitioned off from it; or at any rate have put up a match boarding to divide the bed from the rest of the stall. * * * In a few districts the farmers have gone a step further and have broken through the custom of the men sleeping in the sheds at night and have housed their laborers in special buildings adjoining the sheds.

Until just before the war a laissez-faire policy was pursued in respect to the unsatisfactory living conditions in rural areas, notwithstanding their recognized effect upon rural life. Recently, however, the workers themselves have awakened to the desirability of improvement and have demanded it through their organizations. The presence of a large number of foreign workers has further emphasized the necessity of more sanitary housing. The Agricultural Labor Commission at its meeting on July 19, 1920, under the chairmanship of the Minister of Agriculture, made the following demands:

(1) That a separate walled room with roof and having an outside window for light and ventilation be provided for men in charge of stock in or near the stable or cattle shed, with which it may communicate by a door having a glazed pane;

(2) That farm servants not in charge of stock be lodged apart from animals; that each married couple have a separate room; that unmarried men and women never sleep in the same room; that they be lodged either in separate rooms or in dormitories;

(3) That all bedrooms and dormitories have a sufficient cubic air space, be sufficiently wind and water tight, and have such windows as are necessary to insure good ventilation and lighting;

(4) That their floors be paved or cobbled or of concrete or be otherwise rendered damp-proof; that their walls be painted or whitewashed, and that they have ceilings of contiguous boards;

(5) That there be latrines near buildings used as dwellings;

(6) That each worker have his own bed, preferably of iron;

(7) That for seasonal workers employed for a short time, in whose case these rules can not be strictly observed, clean and healthy sleeping places, in which sexes are separated, be provided.

The French Government, cognizant of the situation, is also endeavoring to do its part in making the land more attractive to the younger people. This is evidenced in the legislation encouraging the ownership of small holdings, in the granting of family allowances, the application of workmen's compensation to agricultural labor, and in the experiments in home colonization. By a decree of October 17, 1922, a return-to-the-land committee was created in each department under the authority of the Minister of Agriculture. The work laid out for these committees as published in the International Review of Agricultural Economics, October, 1922, pp. 679, 680, follows:

This committee is formed with the object of issuing or encouraging the issue of the necessary propaganda on the return to the land, of assisting farmers and agricultural laborers to find land they can cultivate or posts they can fill. It gets into touch with the public labor exchanges and employment bureaus, wherever they exist. It gives support when required to farm workers, male and female; spreads a knowledge of the laws as to thrift, social insurance, and the acquisition of land. Finally by seconding the efforts of the public offices for erecting cheap dwelling houses, it engages in the work of insuring convenient and healthy accommodations for the families of farm hands. In a general way, it encourages all public and private initiatives that can help to bring about the return to the land and the well-being of the rural classes.

Foreign Labor in French Agriculture.

FOR a long time French agriculturalists have found it necessary to import seasonal labor. Foreign workers regularly offering their services for farm work include Belgians, Spaniards, Italians, Portuguese, and Poles. And there has been a discussion recently of an arrangement for bringing in unemployed British workmen and Bulgarians.

Spain sends from 40,000 to 50,000 farm workers to France each year. The migratory movement from Portugal is of recent origin and the number going from there to France annually is still small. Belgium and Italy furnish an annual contingent of about 40,000 agricultural laborers each, and these workers seek employment generally in the Departments nearest their respective borders. Since the war immigration of harvest labor from Belgium has naturally been somewhat arrested, but the recent restrictive immigration legislation of the United States has served to redirect Polish labor to the harvest fields of France. Spanish and Portuguese workers migrate to every part of France. They are found in 54 Departments, but are most numerous in the Departments nearest to Spain. Immigration from Spain and Belgium is free, the frontiers being open to all laborers of good moral character provided with contracts. Before the war migration from Italy was also free, but in accordance with a Franco-Italian convention adopted September 3, 1919, the emigration of Italian workmen to France is controlled by the Italian Government, and the French Government is able to secure Italian laborers only through official channels.

The supply of agricultural labor is fairly well regulated through a system of local and national employment exchanges. Immigration offices on the frontiers of the European countries furnishing seasonal workers for French agriculture receive offers of employment from agriculturists needing labor and direct foreign laborers to places where work may be found. The importation of a considerable number of foreign agricultural workmen has necessitated the conclusion of labor treaties for the protection of both foreign and domestic workers.

Trade-unionism Among French Agricultural Workers.

AGRICULTURAL trade unions in France originated about a quarter of a century ago among agricultural laborers, wood cutters, vine dressers, and horticultural workers. Between 1904 and 1914 several efforts at unification were made, but local and individual differences rendered a complete fusion of the agrarian unions difficult. The exigencies of a long war succeeded in doing what

various congresses had failed to accomplish. They brought together into one national federation (*Fédération National des Travailleurs de l'Agriculture*) the remnant of these old unions. In September, 1920, the new federation included 328 unions (*syndicats*) with a membership of about 30,000. This number compared with the whole number of agricultural workers indicates how slight a hold trade-unionism as yet really has upon the agricultural workers, a condition due in part to the isolation of the workers and in part to the large number of small holders.

The new organization which allied itself with the C. G. T. (*Confédération Générale du Travail*) advocated equalization of wages as between agricultural and industrial workers; the 8-hour day; accident insurance for farm workers under the same conditions as those which exist in the case of industrial labor; the settlement of agricultural disputes in the industrial courts; the establishment of more hygienic conditions on the farm, including the abolition of the custom of sleeping on straw; limitation of foreign labor; workers to have a voice in the placement of agricultural labor; organization of apprenticeship and technical agricultural education, etc. The Travailleur de la Terre is the organ of the federation. Within the past few years trade-unions have been formed among the métayers and small holders, in the hope of securing more concerted action in regard to wages, hours of labor and other desirable changes.

Wages of Agricultural Wage Earners and Cost of Living.

PRIOR to the war agricultural wage rates were low, ranging from (see table p. 41) 2.25 to 4.50 francs (43 cents to 87 cents, par) per day in cases of workers who boarded themselves. These low wage scales were due to several causes, among which were lack of organization among the workers, the extent of unemployment, and the fact that while to many of the agricultural wage earners the wages they received were their sole means of existence, to quite a large number these earnings merely supplemented their inadequate income from the small holdings which they worked with the aid of their families. The class of small proprietors did not naturally seek with the same energy as the landless workers an increase in wage rates, and actually though unintentionally tended to keep farm wages down. The recent wage increases in agriculture therefore seem relatively large.

Owing to the scarcity of farm labor, due to the mobilization of the forces in 1914, a movement toward higher rates became apparent by 1915. In the early fall of that year, at the commencement of the application of a law extending the benefits of workmen's compensation to the forestry workers, both daily and yearly agricultural wage rates were fixed in each department by prefectural order, after the prefect had consulted with a mixed commission which consisted of an equal number of employers and employees, regarding conditions affecting wages in their respective localities. The rates established ranged from 2.25 to 5 francs (43 cents to 97 cents, par) per day, and furnished the basis upon which compensation for injured workmen was calculated.

According to an inquiry made in 1916 by the Ministry of Agriculture, wages of agricultural workers without board had increased

about 50 per cent between 1914 and 1916. By 1920 the movement for increased rates had reached much higher levels, the basic daily wages of a workman furnishing his own board ranging in general between 10 and 12 francs ($1.93 to $2.32 par), although they were as high as 15 francs ($2.90 par) in certain Departments (Marne, Seine-et-Marne, Savoie), and as low as from 6 to 8 francs ($1.16 to $1.54 par) in other Departments (Eure, Vendee, Finistere, Eure-et-Loir, Dordogne). The percentage increase from 1915 to 1920 varied naturally with the Departments, being as high as 250 per cent in some and as low as 100 per cent in others, but taking them altogether it was approximately 200 per cent.

To show the change in the daily wage rates of farm workers in France over a period of years wage data were furnished by the industrial courts (*conseils de prud'hommes*) to the French bureau of statistics for 1911 as compared with those of 1921. Since the lower rates were not affected by the local variations in wages following the declaration of war, this range of wages appears to be a better basis for noting the change which has really taken place than a 1914 basis could be, and is therefore used in the table which follows:

DAILY WAGES OF FRENCH AGRICULTURAL WORKERS, WITHOUT BOARD, 1911, 1921, AND 1922, AND INDEX NUMBERS OF WAGES IN AGRICULTURE AND IN OTHER OCCUPATIONS, COST OF BOARD AND LODGING, AND RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD, IN SPECIFIED YEAR, BY DEPARTMENTS.

[1 franc=19.3 cents par.]

Department.	Daily wages.			Index numbers (1911=100).				
	1911 [1]	1921 [2]	1922 [3]	Wages in agricultural occupations.		Wages in other occupations, 1921. [3]	Board and lodging, 1921. [4]	Retail prices of food, 1921. [5]
				1921	1922			
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*					
Aisne	3.00	[1] 16.00	[6] 4,140.00	533	.....	523	460	455
Alpes (Basses)	3.50	12.00	12.00	343	343	321	375	396
Alpes (Hautes)	3.50	10.00	10.00	286	286	430	386	466
Ardeche	2.50	9.00	9.00	360	360	353	.....	438
Ariege	3.00	[1] 10.00	[6] 2,400.00	333	.....	275	400	482
Aude	3.00	10.00	10.00	333	333	474	400	487
Bouches-du-Rhone	4.00	[1] 16.00	[6] 3,600.00	400	.....	354	600	.....
Charente	3.00	10.00	10.00	333	333	343	425	412
Cher	3.60	10.30	10.30	286	286	351	313	407
Corse	2.25	15.00	15.00	667	225	372	273	460
Creuse	4.00	10.00	10.00	250	250	351	267	433
Drome	3.50	13.50	13.50	386	386	360	433	408
Eure	3.50	12.00	12.00	343	343	351	317	413
Gard	3.00	[1] 10.00	11.00	333	367	402	554	426
Herault	3.00	12.00	12.00	400	400	427	357	405
Isere	3.25	11.00	11.00	338	338	412	338	442
Jura	4.00	10.00	10.00	250	250	371	385	433
Loire	3.50	10.00	10.00	286	286	404	538	358
Lot	3.00	[1] 14.00	[6] 3,000.00	467	.....	419	.....	434
Nord	3.50	12.00	12.00	343	343	413	.....	448
Orne	3.00	10.50	10.50	350	350	409	.....	420
Pas-de-Calais	2.90	11.50	11.50	397	397	584	520	424
Puy-de-Dome	3.25	[1] 16.00	(7)	492	.....	508	429	468
Pyrenees (Basses)	3.00	[1] 12.00	15.00	400	.....	413	329	381
Pyrenees-Orientales	3.50	[1] 13.00	(7)	370	.....	384	.....	428
Saone (Haute)	3.50	[1] 15.00	11.50	429	329	395	358	419
Saone-et-Loire	3.50	10.00	10.00	286	286	359	333	453
Seine-et-Marne	4.00	15.00	15.00	375	375	370	406	410
Seine-et-Oise	4.50	12.00	12.00	267	267	352	412	445
Somme	3.00	11.65	11.65	388	388	503	536	417
Tarn-et-Garonne	3.50	12.00	12.00	343	343	412	326	409
Var	3.50	12.00	12.00	343	343	347	308	415
Vosges	3.75	[1] 15.00	[6] 4,200.00	400	.....	456	400	378
Yonne	3.65	[1] 15.50	[6] 3,800.00	425	.....	357	293	424

[1] France. Bureau de la Statistique Générale de la France. Bulletin, July, 1921, p. 357.
[2] France. Ministère du Travail. Bulletin, January, February, March, 1923, pp. 37-38.
[3] Based on average wages in 38 occupations of men and 7 occupations of women.
[4] For unmarried workmen in a boarding house or inn.
[5] Thirteen principal commodities. [6] Annual wages. [7] Not reported.

In considering this table attention is called to the divergence in sources of the material used, which to some extent affects the comparability of the data presented. The wage rates, as stated before, and the cost of board and lodging were furnished by the conseils de prud'hommes. The wage indexes for the occupations other than agriculture are based on data for 38 occupations of men and 7 occupations of women submitted by these courts. Data for board and lodging applied to workmen living in boarding houses. Those for retail prices were secured by the general statistical office in towns containing more than 10,000 inhabitants, and were based on the prices of 13 principal commodities.

Expenses in both these instances were undoubtedly greater than they would have been in purely agricultural sections, but increased living costs were severely felt in the country as well as in the towns and these statistics, though from a variety of sources and confined to 34 Departments, give a relative idea, at least, of how wage increases in agricultural occupations compared generally with increases in other occupations, and with those in the cost of board and lodging on the one hand and those of retail prices of necessary commodities on the other.

Minimum daily wages in 1921 showed a slight increase over those in 1920, and there was practically no change in basic rates in 1922. Average daily wages in 1921 in 34 selected departments are said to have represented an increase of more than 300 per cent over the 1911 rates. Taken as a whole, however, they did not overtake the increased cost of living.

Reports on the wages of individual classes of agricultural workers in the different Departments during the period 1915 to 1920 varied too greatly to admit of comparison and of presentation in tabular form. Basic rates were affected by the class and the sex of the worker and by the season. Women received about one-half the rate of wages paid to men, and summer wages, especially those paid during harvest, were always higher than those paid during the winter months. In many cases only average wage rates were reported. The rates applicable to some of the classes of agricultural workers in a few Departments are given as illustrations:

Aude.

Daily wages of laborers in 1915 and 1920:	Francs.[1]
1915—Nov. 1 to Jan. 31	3.00
Feb. 1 to Oct. 31	[2] 4.00
Harvest time	[3] 5.00
1920—Nov. 1 to Mar. 1	[4] 9.00
Mar. 1 to Oct. 31	[2] 10.00
Overtime (per hour)	1.75

Women's wages in each case were about one-half of the amounts paid men.

[1] Franc at par=19.3 cents.
[2] And 2 liters (2.1 quarts) of wine.
[3] And 3 liters (3.2 quarts) of wine.
[4] And 1 liter (1.1 quarts) of wine.

Marne.

Daily wages in 1915 and 1920:	Francs.[2]
1915—Assistants	3
Charcoal burners	5
Journeymen	4
Pruners	8
Sawyers and splitters	5
Woodcutters	4
1920—Average daily wage	15

Pyrenees-Orientales.

1915—Annual wages (300 days): 1,200 francs.

1920—Daily wages:

	Francs.[1]
First district—various crops—	
Men	10–12
Women	5– 6
Reapers and mowers	16–20
Second district—work in vineyards—	
Men	[2] 16–18
Women	[4] 6
Harvest time—	
Men	[2] 16–18
Women	[4] 8– 9

According to Consular Report No. 81700, dated at Paris, December 30, 1922, the annual cash wages of several classes of farm workers had been fixed as from November, 1922, for the subsequent eight months. From the statement it appears that there is in French agriculture the same detailed classification of farm workers as to duties and wages as is found in other European countries, and that in this particular instance farm maids and farm cooks rank among the more highly paid farm servants. In addition to the cash wages, which follow, these classes receive also board and lodging.

Cher (Bourges).

	Francs.[1]
Shepherds and cowboys	[5] 900–1,000 [5] 700– 800
General laborers	1,200–1,500
First cart drivers	1,500–1,800
Second cart drivers	1,200–1,500

Indre (Chateauroux).

First plowman	1,600–1,800
Second plowman	1,000–1,400
Third plowman	800–1,000
Head shepherds	1,200–1,500
Other shepherds	700– 800
Cowboys	600– 800
Farm maids	1,200–1,500
Farm cooks	1,200–1,500

[1] Franc at par=19.3 cents.
[2] And 2 liters (2.1 quarts) of wine.
[4] And 1 liter (1.1 quarts) of wine.
[5] According to age.

Wages of Foreign Agricultural Laborers in France.[3]

THE wages of Belgian laborers who seek work in French agriculture are usually, though not always, since Belgian emigration is free, fixed by contract. In 1920 some of the contracts entered into between French employers and these seasonal workers were per hectare (2.47 acres) as follows:

For ridging beetroot (two operations), 100 to 200 francs ($19.30 to $38.60, par), with board; for pulling beets, 200 francs ($38.60, par) with board; for cutting tops, 120 francs ($23.16, par) with board or 150 francs ($28.95, par) without board; for other kinds of agricultural labor, 10 to 12 francs ($1.93 to $2.32, par) per day with board. In the Department of the Seine-et-Marne harvest rates of from 18 to 20 francs ($3.47 to $3.86, par) per day with lodging, soup twice a day, and drink were paid also in some instances.

The Spanish and Portuguese laborers received in 1920 for ordinary farm work from 10 to 12 francs ($1.93 to $2.32, par) per day and 2 liters (2.1134 quarts) of wine, or 6 francs ($1.16, par) per day with full board. Their wages for the grape harvest were 17 francs ($3.28, par) and 2 liters (2.1134 quarts) of wine per day for men; 9 francs ($1.74, par) and 1 liter (1.057 quarts) of wine for women, and 5 francs (97 cents, par) for children.

The average wages offered Italian agricultural workers in France during the same year were from 180 to 200 francs ($34.74 to $38.60, par) per month with board and lodging, or 10 to 12 francs ($1.93 to $2.32, par) per day with 1 or 2 liters (1.057 or 2.1134 quarts) of wine, without board. Exceptional wages paid these workers were: Sawyers, 15 francs ($2.90, par) per day with lodging (Bouches-du-Rhone); carters in forests, 400 francs ($77.20, par) per month with board (Corsica); farm laborers, 20 francs ($3.86, par) per day without board (Gard).

Family Allowances.

FOR a number of years before the World War employees of certain public services, of the great railroad companies, and of important industrial establishments received as an addition to their wages allowances in proportion to the number of children in their families. The alarming and continuous increase in prices which manifested itself while the war was in progress furnished a very pressing reason for an extension of this practice to State employees of every class, and upon the initiative of employers workers in many additional industries were also made participants in such benefits. In 1916, according to an inquiry made by the French Ministry of Labor, the number of workmen affected was 2,000,000.

During the latter part of 1920 the system of allowances for family charges was applied albeit with special difficulty, to agricultural workers, the first compensation bank being established at that time by the Regional Union of Agricultural Syndicates of the Ile de France, under the name of Mutual Syndical Bank of Insurance and Thrift (*Caisse mutuelle syndicale d'assurance et de prévoyance*). The finances of the bank are maintained by the fixed annual subscriptions of the

[3] La main-d'oeuvre agricole, Paris, November, 1920. Quoted in the International Review of Agricultural Economics (Rome), March, 1921, pp. 138-140.

employers who are its members and by donations and subsidies from other interested persons.

The allowances paid consist of:
(1) A marriage portion of 100 francs ($19.30, par).
(2) A maternity premium of 200 francs ($38.60, par) at the birth of any legitimate child.
(3) Monthly and progressive premiums for each child after the first as follows:
Second child, 10 francs ($1.93, par).
Third child, 10 francs ($1.93, par).
Fourth child, 15 francs ($2.90, par).
Fifth and each subsequent child, 20 francs ($3.86, par).

Since the organization of the first bank, new undertakings of a similar character have been started for the same purpose, differing, however, in some respects as to the amounts paid and the conditions which must be met by the families receiving the allowances. For instance, one bank pays an allowance of 125 francs ($24.13, par) per month to families having six children, but the allowance may be suspended for the duration of a strike. The allowance is withheld also if the wife works elsewhere than on the holding, or if a child under 15 years of age works away from home.

Payments are in all cases made by the compensation banks to the workers' families, thus simplifying the management of the farms and asserting more clearly the principle of the collective liability of the employers for the allowances.

Hours of Labor.

ALTHOUGH forms of social legislation such as workmen's compensation and family allowances have been made applicable to agricultural workers, they have not benefited by any of the legislation regulating hours of labor. Working hours on French farms are long—an average of 13½ hours a day in summer, 11½ in winter, modified to some extent by the locality and kind of work. The weekly day of rest is not generally observed, a half day or four or five hours being granted usually about once in two weeks.

A mixed commission appointed by the Ministry of Agriculture to inquire into the possibility of changing the hours of labor failed in its efforts because the worker members presented a plan limiting the hours of agricultural labor to 48 hours a week or 2,496 a year (with a maximum of 10 hours per day). They demanded also a weekly half day of rest and Saturday afternoons off. The Congrès de l'Agriculture Française (an employer organization) has gone on record against the 8-hour day on the land on the double ground that such a limitation would be followed by a reduced production, which would in turn increase prices and force France to buy a greater proportion of her necessities in foreign markets.

The general attitude toward the 8-hour day in agriculture was also shown in 1921, when French Government and employer representatives questioned the competence of the International Labor Organization to deal with matters relating to agricultural labor. The question was referred to the Permanent Court for International Justice, which decided later that agricultural labor comes properly under the jurisdiction of the International Labor Organization.

A feature of French agriculture tending to keep wages down and hours long is the presence of the large number of small holders who are often both employers and workers. They work long hours to get the most out of their holdings, and, as stated before, being able to supplement their wages with the income from their small tracts of land they do not organize and are not so aggressive as landless workers in their demands for higher pay. The gradual industrialization of French agriculture, however, is expected eventually to help make possible a shortening of the working-day on farms.

Shop Committees as a Suggested Means of Improving Industrial Relations on Railroads.

IN A pamphlet recently issued,[1] Henry T. Hunt, formerly a member of the Railroad Labor Board, has set forth his interpretation of the reasons for the lack of cooperation between railroad employees and railroad managements and has suggested a shop-committee plan as a method of improving the situation. This plan utilizes the machinery already set up by the trade-unions to settle grievances by enlargement of the functions of the grievance committees. The maintenance of equipment department is suggested as the department in which conditions are most favorable for the establishment of "cooperative" committees.

Employer membership the author thinks should consist of the shop superintendent and the heads of departments of the shop in numbers equal to and not to exceed employees' representatives.

The general functions of the joint committees, in which is included agreement upon a standard of production, the author suggests should be to promote:

1. Better understanding by management of the needs, desires, and problems of workmen, and by workmen of the objects and problems of management.
2. Stabilization of forces, reduction of unemployment, and measures to reduce the injury to workmen caused by unemployment. Unemployment insurance.
3. The growth of faith, confidence, and trust on both sides.
4. Ascertainment of and agreement upon a fair output.
5. Increase of production by elimination of waste and improvement of processes.
6. Elimination of causes of grievance and settlement of grievances.

The last-named subject should be handled by a subcommittee composed of representatives of each side.

Mr. Hunt would obviate the difficulty of agreement upon an individual standard of output in railroad shops by substituting a minimum standard of output for the shop. Productivity above the minimum should be considered superproductivity, the value of which might be ascertained and a part agreed upon, paid by the company into an unemployment insurance or other insurance fund. This last suggestion is "practicable probably only after the successful operation of the shop-committee plan for some time."

As a subject for conference a system of unemployment insurance at joint expense is suggested, and possible details of such a plan are outlined in the pamphlet. Unemployment insurance for shop crafts

[1] Hunt, Henry T.: Means to promote cooperation between railroad managements and employees. New York, 1922. 46 pp.

is suggested as a starting point. Conference on a jointly supported pension fund is proposed.

The health, death, and accident insurance and insurance against discharge plan, instituted by the Delaware & Hudson Railroad Co., is described and commented upon.

A tentative outline of a plan for a shop committee as suggested above, stating aims, means, jurisdiction committees, procedure, etc., proper for such a committee is suggested. The present time the author believes to be particularly opportune for the institution of such a plan. It is recommended that a railroad officer free from other duties be charged with the responsibility of handling the plan, rather than to leave it to an operating officer already overburdened with mechanical problems.

The railroad industry, in the opinion of the author, possesses factors peculiarly qualifying it for cooperative action:

> Railroad employees constitute a highly intelligent and disciplined body of men. They are well organized and trained in the technique of democracy. Several of their organizations carry on complicated enterprises as well as govern themselves. Their leaders have constructive ability and are in general moderate and responsible and are aware of the essentials for business success. These organizations, if given an incentive to aid railroad productivity, would bring into action forces of enormous power and value now suppressed.

Employee Representation Plans in Cleveland.

THE Cleveland Chamber of Commerce has recently published a report upon employee representation plans in operation in Cleveland, based upon a study conducted by its committee on labor relations through its research department. The study was continued through a number of months, and approximately 600 Cleveland firms were canvassed either through questionnaires or by personal visits from the committee's representatives. Sixteen plans were selected as being sufficiently well defined to merit inclusion in the report of the study. No mention is made of how many plans were found in operation, nor is it stated whether these 16 were the only "well-defined" ones found. It is doubtful whether all of these can reasonably be included in a study of employee representation. In one plan, No. 6, the body through which the workers make their views known is a so-called "Cooperators Club," composed of one foreman and one operative from each department. Every foreman belongs to it by virtue of his position; the employee members are elected by the club itself, the names having first been passed upon by a committee selected by the club; only club members can vote. Nonmembers may bring their grievances before the club by means of suggestion boxes provided in the plant. From one point of view, this may be called employee representation, since foremen are unquestionably employees, but it does not comply with the customary definition of the term. Of the other 15 plans, 9 explicitly provide that no one with supervisory powers or with the right of hiring and discharging may be elected as an employee representative.

Only five of the plans reported on were installed before 1917, and of these one was revised in 1918. Ten were installed in 1917 and 1919 and one in 1920. For the most part the plants in which they were found were engaged in manufacturing. They differed considerably in size, the number of employees ranging from 300 up to 6,200; in each of 7 plants the number exceeded 1,000. The plans were of varying degrees of complexity, the simplest consisting only of a grievance committee with which one of the officials met at stated intervals, while others provided for two or even three bodies, representing, respectively, the workers, the foremen and supervisory employees, and the management, with a varying number of committees more or less closely connected with these. In general all the plans provided for an employee body which should meet at stated intervals to consider matters on which the workers might wish to express themselves. One plan has already been mentioned in which the rank and file of the workers appear to have little voice in choosing their representatives; in another, No. 12, the employees' body consists of six workers elected by their fellows and six selected by the management. With the exception of these two plans, there appears to be a distinct desire to let the workers' body represent their free choice. A few qualifications are imposed. Quite generally there is a provision that no one is eligible to be a representative until he has been in the company's service for a specified period, varying from three months to two years. Nine plans require citizenship and seven have an age qualification; three plans have no qualifications of any kind, the whole matter being left to the judgment of the workers. Very generally the representatives are elected by secret ballot, so that there can be no suspicion as to the freedom of the workers' choice.

The powers of the workers' representatives are usually limited to making suggestions or recommendations. In the simplest form of organization, such recommendations go directly to the executive or his representative, whose decision is final. In the more elaborate forms, the recommendation passed by the body of employee representatives goes to the body representing the supervisory forces, which passes upon it before it reaches the deciding authority. Three plans provide for action in case the employees' representatives wish to press their recommendations in spite of the adverse decision of the executive. The first of these is plan No. 1, which provides for two bodies, one, called the congress, composed of 24 members elected by the workers, and the other, called the cabinet, composed of the president of the company, the vice presidents, the secretary, and the treasurer. If the cabinet approves the recommendations of the congress, they at once become executive orders; if it disapproves them, they are returned to the congress with a statement of the reasons for disapproval. If the congress is not satisfied with these reasons, a committee of the cabinet meets with a committee of the congress, forming a board of arbitration, whose decision must be accepted by both sides. If this joint committee can not agree, the matter is referred to the board of directors of the company, whose decision is final. The second plan of this kind, plan No. 2, provides for three different bodies: The house of representatives, composed of and elected by workers; the senate, composed of one department foreman from each section, elected by a secret ballot of all eligible

employees; and the cabinet, composed of the general manager, the production manager, the technical director, and others appointed by these three. Recommendations passed by the house go to the senate, and if approved by it are forwarded to the cabinet; upon its approval they become executive orders. If the cabinet does not approve, it may return the recommendation to the lower houses with a statement of its reasons. The language of the report is not entirely clear at this point, but apparently the two houses, if they agree, can override the cabinet.

In case of failure to agree on a resolution, the cabinet may call a joint meeting of congress. The resulting vote of this meeting is binding upon the management. Joint meetings may be called at the request of the house or the senate.

The third plan of this kind calls for two representative bodies, one made up of workers, and one composed of the heads of departments, and provides that in case the "house of representatives" and the management can not agree, some person whom they are both willing to accept may be called upon to arbitrate and his decision shall be final. In practice, it is stated, there has been very little difficulty over the matter.

The management reserves the veto right but rarely exercises it. Differences of opinion regarding recommendations always have been adjusted satisfactorily by discussion.

The report gives no illustrative cases, and does not state whether or not arbitration has ever been resorted to under any of these plans. It is evident that the workers might hesitate to insist upon something known to be distasteful to the management unless they had a firm conviction that their action would not lead to discrimination against them thereafter. The same hesitancy might be shown about making recommendations in the first place, even when there is no intention or opportunity of urging them in the face of managerial disapproval. On this point not all of the plans are satisfactory. The three just described have no written guaranty against discrimination, but it is understood that there will be none.

While there are no written guaranties, it is mutually understood that the company will not discriminate against an employee because of any action taken in connection with his work as a congressman.

Thirteen of the sixteen companies concerned have given the employees to understand that there will be no discrimination; in two of these the plan itself contains guaranties against such action. The remaining three make no promises.

Three companies have never given guaranties against discrimination, either verbal or written. Two of them stated that the necessity for such guaranties has never arisen. The third stated that discrimination is never exercised unless the representative is a chronic trouble maker.

The motives prompting the employers to install these plans are given somewhat fully. Most of them were inaugurated during the war and post-war period when labor was hard to get and to keep. In general, the purposes were to secure better relations between the men and the management, to obtain the cooperation of the workers, to promote efficiency, and, generally, to increase the workers' interest in their employment. In one plan, No. 8, the workers' representatives must be elected from the membership of an employees'

association, and the constitution of this association states that it functions through the representative body "to secure for the operatives a proper share in the management in matters affecting their interest—to advance and safeguard the collective and individual interests of the operatives." This is one of the plans which seems to give the workers' representatives some real power, since it is provided that no recommendations affecting the employees' interests made by the representatives of the foremen or the management can become standard practice unless they are acceptable to the workers' body. In another case, the purpose is stated very frankly:

> To provide a means for the exchange of ideas and the settlement of grievances between the management and its employees, and to establish a method of collective bargaining which would remove any necessity of the employees for the closed union shop method.

This is the company which states that it makes no discrimination against an employee representative for action in his official capacity unless the representative is a chronic trouble maker.

The employers' opinions of the results which have followed the installation of these plans are given quite fully. In general, they believe that relations between the men and the management have been improved, and in most cases they ascribe some definite advantage to the working of the plans, such as increased efficiency, decreased labor turnover, suggestions for improved methods which they would probably not have received otherwise, and so on. In one case it is specifically stated that the workers' body had studied methods of increasing production, "with the result that the same rate of production is obtained in 8 hours as was formerly obtained in 10." In another the employers found that in introducing important changes in the character of their product they were greatly aided by the representation plan. In two cases, one of the important results is given as the development of capable, intelligent leaders among the employees. In another, in which the plan was installed in 1913, the employers call attention to the fact that although unrest and industrial conflicts have been common in their industry, they have had no labor trouble for 10 years past. The results are thus summed up in the report:

> While it is difficult to measure the results obtained, most executives and employees felt that employee representation had created for the employer and the employees a better understanding of their mutual problems. In 11 instances it was stated that employee representation appreciably improved the morale of the working force. In seven instances it resulted in decreased labor turnover. Six executives felt that they had been able to obtain more intelligent cooperation from their employees as result of their plans. Except in a few instances, the results of employee representation plans have not been directly productive of profit. In five instances the plans have stimulated production or increased efficiency. In four they have produced valuable suggestions. Other results were: In two cases the development of intelligent leadership among the employees; in one case the promotion of the employees' economic education.

It is to be noted that this study is made frankly from the employers' viewpoint. While the introduction states that about 600 firms were canvassed, and that "in each case the text describing these plans has been approved by a responsible officer of the firm which is operating the plan," there is nothing to show that the employees affected have been consulted, except as there is such an indication in the first sentence of the above quotation.

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

Retail Prices of Food in the United States.

THE following tables are based on figures which have been received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from retail dealers through monthly reports of actual selling prices.[1]

Table 1 shows for the United States retail prices of food on May 15, 1922, and on April 15 and May 15, 1923, as well as the percentage changes in the year and in the month. For example, the price of fresh milk per quart was 12.5 cents on May 15, 1922; 13.6 cents on April 15, 1923; and 13.5 cents on May 15, 1923. These figures show an increase of 8 per cent in the year, but a decrease of 1 per cent in the month.

The cost of the various articles of food,[2] combined, showed an increase of 3 per cent in May, 1923, as compared with May, 1922, and an increase of two-tenths of 1 per cent in May, 1923, as compared with April, 1923.

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[1] In addition to monthly retail prices of food and coal, the bureau secures prices of gas and dry goods from each of 51 cities and for electricity from 32 cities. These prices are published at quarterly intervals in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

[2] The following 22 articles, weighted according to the consumption of the average family, have been used from January, 1913, to December, 1920: Sirloin steak, round steak, rib roast, chuck roast, plate beef, pork chops, bacon, ham, lard, hens, flour, corn meal, eggs, butter, milk, bread, potatoes, sugar, cheese, rice, coffee, and tea. The remainder of the 43 articles shown in Tables 1 and 2 have been included in the weighted aggregates for each month, beginning with January, 1921.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, MAY 15, 1923, COMPARED WITH MAY 15, 1922, AND APRIL 15, 1923.

(Percentage changes of five-tenths of 1 per cent and over are given in whole numbers.)

Article.	Unit.	Average retail price on—			Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) May 15, 1923, compared with—	
		May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.
		Cents.	*Cents.*	*Cents.*		
Sirloin steak	Pound	37.7	37.9	38.7	+3	+2
Round steak	do	32.5	32.3	33.0	+2	+2
Rib roast	do	27.9	27.8	28.2	+1	+1
Chuck roast	do	19.8	19.7	19.9	+1	+1
Plate beef	do	13.0	12.7	12.8	−2	+1
Pork chops	do	34.4	28.4	30.0	−13	+6
Bacon	do	39.8	39.1	39.1	−2	0
Ham	do	51.3	45.1	45.4	−12	+1
Lamb, leg of	do	39.2	36.2	36.7	−6	+1
Hens	do	37.7	36.1	36.2	−4	+0.3
Salmon, canned, red	do	32.3	31.2	31.2	−3	0
Milk, fresh	Quart	12.5	13.6	13.5	+8	−1
Milk, evaporated	15–16-oz. can	11.0	12.2	12.2	+11	0
Butter	Pound	44.9	57.3	52.1	+16	−9
Oleomargarine	do	27.5	29.1	29.1	+6	0
Nut margarine	do	26.7	27.5	27.6	+3	+0.4
Cheese	do	30.8	36.3	35.5	+15	−2
Lard	do	17.0	17.5	17.3	+2	−1
Vegetable lard substitute	do	22.2	22.6	22.6	+2	0
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	33.5	34.4	35.1	+5	+2
Bread	Pound	8.8	8.7	8.7	−1	0
Flour	do	5.3	4.9	4.8	−9	−2
Corn meal	do	3.8	4.0	4.0	+5	0
Rolled oats	do	8.7	8.8	8.8	+1	0
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg.	10.0	9.7	9.7	−3	0
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg.	25.8	24.6	24.5	−5	−0.4
Macaroni	Pound	20.1	19.8	19.4	−3	−2
Rice	do	9.5	9.4	9.4	−1	0
Beans, navy	do	9.7	11.4	11.4	+18	0
Potatoes	do	3.0	2.5	2.7	−10	+8
Onions	do	9.8	6.5	7.8	−20	+20
Cabbage	do	5.7	8.4	8.0	+40	−5
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	13.1	13.0	13.0	−1	0
Corn, canned	do	15.5	15.4	15.4	−1	0
Peas, canned	do	17.8	17.5	17.5	−2	0
Tomatoes, canned	do	13.7	12.9	13.0	−5	+1
Sugar, granulated	Pound	6.6	10.6	11.2	+70	+6
Tea	do	67.9	69.2	69.3	+2	+0.1
Coffee	do	35.9	38.0	38.0	+6	0
Prunes	do	20.4	19.7	19.5	−4	−1
Raisins	do	24.2	18.0	17.8	−26	−1
Bananas	Dozen	36.2	36.6	37.0	+2	+1
Oranges	do	62.0	50.2	55.3	−11	+10
All articles combined [1]					+3	+0.2

[1] See note 2, p. 51.

Table 2 shows for the United States average retail prices of specified food articles on May 15, 1913 and 1914, and on May 15 of each year from 1918 to 1923, together with the percentage changes in May of each of these specified years compared with May, 1913. For example, the price per pound of pork chops was 20.9 cents in May, 1913; 22.3 cents in May, 1914; 36.7 cents in May, 1918; 43 cents in May, 1919; 42.5 cents in May, 1920; 35.1 cents in May, 1921; 34.4 cents in May, 1922; and 30 cents in May, 1923. As compared with the average price in May, 1913, these figures show the following percentage increases: 7 per cent in May, 1914; 76 per cent in May, 1918; 106 per cent in May, 1919; 103 per cent in May, 1920; 68 per cent in May, 1921; 65 per cent in May, 1922; and 44 per cent in May, 1923.

The cost of the various articles of food, combined, showed an increase of 48 per cent in May, 1923, as compared with May, 1913.

TABLE 2.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, MAY 15, OF CERTAIN SPECIFIED YEARS COMPARED WITH MAY 15, 1913.

[Percentage changes of five-tenths of 1 per cent and over are given in whole numbers.]

Article.	Unit.	Average retail price May 15—								Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) May 15 of each specified year compared with May 15, 1913.						
		1913	1914	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923	1914	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	1923
		Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*							
Sirloin steak	Pound	25.6	25.8	40.0	44.4	43.4	40.1	37.7	38.7	+1	+56	+73	+70	+57	+47	+51
Round steak	...do	22.2	23.3	38.0	41.6	39.9	35.6	32.5	33.0	+5	+71	+87	+80	+60	+46	+49
Rib roast	...do	20.0	20.3	31.8	35.2	33.4	30.2	27.9	28.2	+2	+59	+76	+67	+51	+40	+41
Chuck roast	...do	16.1	16.5	27.8	29.7	26.5	22.0	19.8	19.9	+2	+73	+84	+65	+37	+23	+24
Plate beef	...do	12.2	12.5	21.9	22.5	18.8	15.0	13.0	12.8	+2	+80	+84	+54	+23	+7	+5
Pork chops	...do	20.9	22.3	36.7	43.0	42.5	35.1	34.4	30.0	+7	+76	+106	+103	+68	+65	+44
Bacon	...do	26.9	26.8	50.5	56.7	52.6	43.5	39.8	39.1	−0.4	+88	+111	+96	+62	+48	+45
Ham	...do	26.7	26.7	45.6	54.5	55.5	48.7	51.3	45.4	0	+71	+104	+108	+82	+92	+70
Lamb	...do	19.4	19.8	36.8	39.6	42.1	34.7	39.2	36.7	+2	+90	+104	+117	+79	+102	+89
Hens	...do	22.2	22.7	37.9	43.5	47.1	41.3	37.7	36.2	+2	+71	+96	+112	+86	+70	+63
Salmon, canned, red	...do	.....	.....	[1] 29.6	[1] 31.9	[1] 37.1	37.9	32.3	31.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Milk, fresh	Quart	8.8	8.9	13.2	14.9	16.2	14.4	12.5	13.5	+1	+50	+69	+84	+64	+42	+53
Milk, evaporated	([2])	.....	.....	.....	16.1	14.7	14.3	11.0	12.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Butter	Pound	35.9	32.7	51.0	67.9	71.6	42.5	44.9	52.1	−9	+42	+89	+99	+18	+25	+45
Oleomargarine	...do	.....	.....	.....	40.4	43.3	30.8	27.5	29.1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Nut margarine	...do	.....	.....	.....	35.3	36.5	28.2	26.7	27.6	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Cheese	...do	21.9	22.8	33.4	42.2	42.9	31.5	30.8	35.5	+4	+53	+93	+96	+44	+41	+62
Lard	...do	15.8	15.5	32.9	38.8	29.8	16.7	17.0	17.3	−2	+108	+146	+89	+6	+8	+9
Vegetable lard substitute	...do	.....	.....	.....	33.9	37.2	21.7	22.2	22.6	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	26.3	26.7	42.4	53.1	52.9	33.4	33.5	35 1	+2	+61	+102	+101	+27	+27	+33
Bread	Pound	5.6	6.2	9.9	9.8	11.5	9.9	8.8	8.7	+11	+77	+75	+105	+77	+57	+55
Flour	...do	3.3	3.3	6.6	7.5	8.7	5.7	5.3	4.8	0	+100	+127	+164	+73	+61	+45
Corn meal	...do	2.9	3.1	7.0	6.2	6.7	4.5	3.8	4.0	+7	+141	+114	+131	+55	+31	+38
Rolled oats	...do	.....	.....	.....	8.5	10.5	9.9	8.7	8.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Corn flakes	([3])	.....	.....	.....	14.1	14.1	12.6	10.0	9.7	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Wheat cereal	([4])	.....	.....	.....	25.1	30.1	29.8	25.8	24.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Macaroni	Pound	.....	.....	.....	19.3	20.7	21.0	20.1	19.4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Rice	...do	8.6	8.7	12.3	13.4	18.7	8.8	9.5	9.4	+1	+43	+56	+117	+2	+10	+9
Beans, navy	...do	.....	.....	17.8	12.0	11.8	7.9	9.7	11.4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Potatoes	...do	1.6	1.9	2.2	3.3	9.6	2.2	3.0	2.7	+19	+38	+106	+500	+38	+88	+69
Onions	...do	.....	.....	5.6	10.7	8.0	5.6	9.8	7.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Cabbage	...do	.....	.....	.....	9.6	8.4	5.6	5.7	8.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Beans, baked	([5])	.....	.....	.....	17.5	16.8	14.6	13.1	13.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Corn, canned	([5])	.....	.....	.....	19.1	18.6	15.9	15.5	15.4	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Peas, canned	([5])	.....	.....	.....	19.0	19.1	17.5	17.8	17.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Tomatoes, canned	([5])	.....	.....	.....	15.8	15.1	11.4	13.7	13.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.4	5.0	9.1	10.6	25.4	8.4	6.6	11.2	−7	+69	+96	+370	+56	+22	+107
Tea	...do	54.4	54.7	63.8	69.8	74.0	70.0	67.9	69.2	+1	+17	+28	+36	+29	+25	+27
Coffee	...do	29.8	29.7	30.1	40.5	49.2	36.1	35.9	38.0	−0.3	+1	+36	+65	+21	+20	+28
Prunes	...do	.....	.....	16.5	23.2	28.3	18.7	20.4	19.5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Raisins	...do	.....	.....	15.1	16.5	27.4	31.0	24.2	17.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Bananas	Dozen	.....	.....	.....	38.8	43.2	40.7	36.2	37.0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Oranges	...do	.....	.....	.....	54.1	71.8	46.7	62.0	55.3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
All articles combined.[6]	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	+1	+64	+91	+123	+50	+44	+48

[1] Both pink and red.
[2] 15-16-ounce can.
[3] 8-ounce package.
[4] 28-ounce package.
[5] No. 2 can.
[6] See note 2, p. 51.

Table 3 shows the changes in the retail price of each of 22 articles of food[3] as well as the changes in the amounts of these articles that could be purchased for $1, each year, 1913 to 1922, and in May, 1923.

TABLE 3.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES OF FOOD AND AMOUNT PURCHASABLE FOR $1, IN EACH YEAR, 1913 TO 1922, AND IN MAY, 1923.

Year.	Sirloin steak.		Round steak.		Rib roast.		Chuck roast.		Plate beef.		Pork chops.	
	Average retail price.	Amt. for $1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for $1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for $1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for $1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for $1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for $1.
	Per lb.	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*
1913	$0.254	3.9	$0.223	4.5	$0.198	5.1	$0.160	6.3	$0.121	8.3	$0.210	4.8
1914	.259	3.9	.236	4.2	.204	4.9	.167	6.0	.126	7.9	.220	4.5
1915	.257	3.9	.230	4.3	.201	5.0	.161	6.2	.121	8.3	.203	4.9
1916	.273	3.7	.245	4.1	.212	4.7	.171	5.8	.128	7.8	.227	4.4
1917	.315	3.2	.290	3.4	.249	4.0	.209	4.8	.157	6.4	.319	3.1
1918	.389	2.6	.369	2.7	.307	3.3	.266	3.8	.206	4.9	.390	2.6
1919	.417	2.4	.389	2.6	.325	3.1	.270	3.7	.202	5.0	.423	2.4
1920	.437	2.3	.395	2.5	.332	3.0	.262	3.8	.183	5.5	.423	2.4
1921	.388	2.6	.344	2.9	.291	3.4	.212	4.7	.143	7.0	.349	2.9
1922	.374	2.7	.323	3.1	.276	3.6	.197	5.1	.128	7.8	.330	3.0
1923: May	.387	2.6	.330	3.0	.282	3.5	.199	5.0	.128	7.8	.300	3.3

	Bacon.		Ham.		Lard.		Hens.		Eggs.		Butter.	
	Per lb.	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Per dz.*	*Dozs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*
1913	$0.270	3.7	$0.269	3.7	$0.158	6.3	$0.213	4.7	$0.345	2.9	$0.383	2.6
1914	.275	3.6	.273	3.7	.156	6.4	.218	4.6	.353	2.8	.362	2.8
1915	.269	3.7	.261	3.8	.148	6.8	.208	4.8	.341	2.9	.358	2.8
1916	.287	3.5	.294	3.4	.175	5.7	.236	4.2	.375	2.7	.394	2.5
1917	.410	2.4	.382	2.6	.276	3.6	.286	3.5	.481	2.1	.487	2.1
1918	.529	1.9	.479	2.1	.333	3.0	.377	2.7	.569	1.8	.577	1.7
1919	.554	1.8	.534	1.9	.369	2.7	.411	2.4	.628	1.6	.678	1.5
1920	.523	1.9	.555	1.8	.295	3.4	.447	2.2	.681	1.5	.701	1.4
1921	.427	2.3	.488	2.0	.180	5.6	.397	2.5	.509	2.0	.517	1.9
1922	.398	2.5	.488	2.0	.170	5.9	.360	2.8	.444	2.3	.479	2.1
1923: May	.391	2.6	.454	2.2	.173	5.8	.362	2.8	.351	2.8	.521	1.9

	Cheese.		Milk.		Bread.		Flour.		Corn meal.		Rice.	
	Per lb.	*Lbs.*	*Per qt.*	*Qts.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*
1913	$0.221	4.5	$0.089	11.2	$0.056	17.9	$0.033	30.3	$0.030	33.3	$0.087	11.5
1914	.229	4.4	.089	11.2	.063	15.9	.034	29.4	.032	31.3	.088	11.4
1915	.233	4.3	.088	11.4	.070	14.3	.042	23.8	.033	30.3	.091	11.0
1916	.258	3.9	.091	11.0	.073	13.7	.044	22.7	.034	29.4	.091	11.0
1917	.332	3.0	.112	9.0	.092	10.9	.070	14.3	.058	17.2	.104	9.6
1918	.359	2.8	.139	7.2	.098	10.2	.067	14.9	.068	14.7	.129	7.8
1919	.426	2.3	.155	6.5	.100	10.0	.072	13.9	.064	15.6	.151	6.6
1920	.416	2.4	.167	6.0	.115	8.7	.081	12.3	.065	15.4	.174	5.7
1921	.340	2.9	.146	6.8	.099	10.1	.058	17.2	.045	22.2	.095	10.5
1922	.329	3.0	.131	7.6	.087	11.5	.051	19.6	.039	25.6	.095	10.5
1923: May	.355	2.8	.135	7.4	.087	11.5	.048	20.8	.040	25.0	.094	10.6

	Potatoes.		Sugar.		Coffee.		Tea.	
	Per lb.	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*	*Per lb.*	*Lbs.*
1913	$0.017	58.8	$0.055	18.2	$0.298	3.4	$0.544	1.8
1914	.018	55.6	.059	16.9	.297	3.4	.546	1.8
1915	.015	66.7	.066	15.2	.300	3.3	.545	1.8
1916	.027	37.0	.080	12.5	.299	3.3	.546	1.8
1917	.043	23.3	.093	10.8	.302	3.3	.582	1.7
1918	.032	31.3	.097	10.3	.305	3.3	.648	1.5
1919	.038	26.3	.113	8.8	.433	2.3	.701	1.4
1920	.063	15.9	.194	5.2	.470	2.1	.733	1.4
1921	.031	32.3	.080	12.5	.363	2.8	.697	1.4
1922	.028	35.7	.073	13.7	.361	2.8	.681	1.5
1923: May	.027	37.0	.112	8.9	.380	2.6	.693	1.4

[3] Although monthly prices of 43 food articles have been secured since January, 1919, prices of only 22 of these articles have been secured each month since 1913.

Index Numbers of Retail Prices of Food in the United States.

IN TABLE 4 index numbers are given which show the changes in the retail prices of each of 22 food articles,[4] by years from 1907 to 1922 and by months for 1922,[5] and for January, February, March, April, and May, 1923. These index numbers or relative prices are based on the year 1913 as 100 and are computed by dividing the average price of each commodity for each month and each year by the average price of that commodity for 1913. These figures must be used with caution. For example, the relative price of rib roast for the year 1920 was 168, which means that the average money price for the year 1920 was 68 per cent higher than the average money price for the year 1913. The relative price of bacon for the year 1919 was 205 and for the year 1920, 194, which figures show a drop of 11 points but a decrease of only 5 per cent in the year.

In the last column of Table 4 are given index numbers showing the changes in the retail cost of all articles of food combined. From January, 1913, to December, 1920, 22 articles have been included in the index, and beginning with January, 1921, 43 articles have been used.[4] For an explanation of the method used in making the link between the cost of the market basket of 22 articles, weighted according to the average family consumption in 1901, and the cost of the market basket based on 43 articles and weighted according to the consumption in 1918, see MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for March, 1921 (p. 25).

The curve shown in the chart on page 57 pictures more readily to the eye the changes in the cost of the family market basket and the trend in the cost of the food budget than do the index numbers given in the table. The retail cost of the food articles included in the index has decreased since July, 1920, until the curve is brought down in May, 1923, to approximately where it was in April, 1917. The chart has been shown on the logarithmic scale,[6] because the percentages of increase or decrease are more accurately shown than on the arithmetic scale.

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[4] See note 2, p. 51.

[5] For index numbers of each month, January, 1913, to December, 1920, see MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for February, 1921, pp. 19–21.

[6] For a discussion of the logarithmic chart see article on "Comparison of arithmetic and ratio charts," by Lucian W. Chaney, MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for March, 1919, pp. 20–34. Also, "The 'ratio' charts," by Prof. Irving Fisher, reprinted from Quarterly Publications of the American Statistical Association, June, 1917, 24 pp.

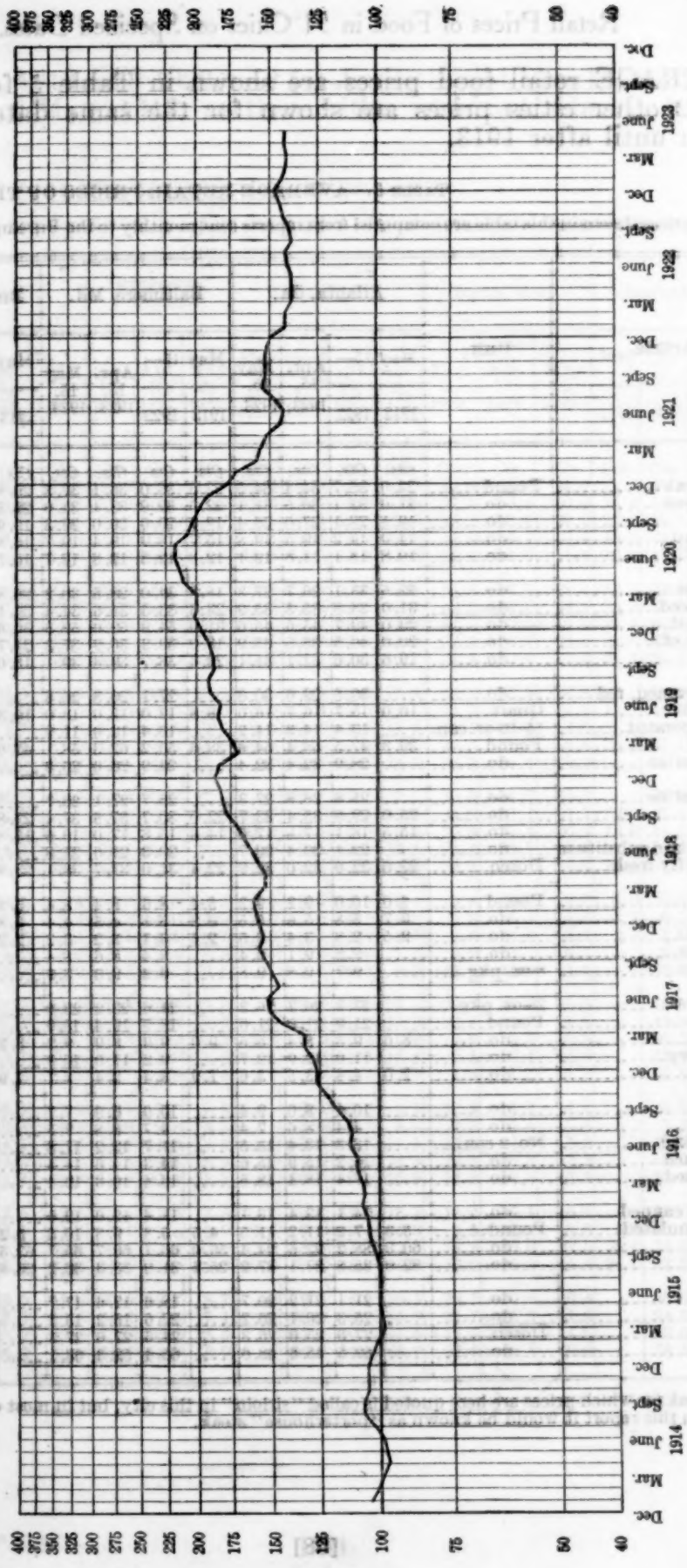
TABLE 4.—INDEX NUMBERS SHOWING CHANGES IN THE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES, BY YEARS FROM 1907 TO 1922 AND BY MONTHS FOR 1922 AND 1923.

[Average for year 1913=100.]

Year and month.	Sirloin steak.	Round steak.	Rib roast.	Chuck roast.	Plate beef.	Pork chops.	Bacon.	Ham.	Lard.	Hens.	Eggs.	Butter.	Cheese.	Milk.	Bread.	Flour.	Corn meal.	Rice.	Potatoes.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Tea.	All articles combined.
1907	71	68	76	.....	.....	74	74	76	81	81	84	85	.....	87	.....	95	88	.....	105	105	.....	.....	82
1908	73	71	78	.....	.....	76	77	78	80	83	86	86	.....	90	.....	102	92	.....	111	108	.....	.....	84
1909	77	74	81	.....	.....	83	83	82	90	89	93	90	.....	91	.....	109	94	.....	112	107	.....	.....	89
1910	80	78	85	.....	.....	92	95	91	104	94	98	94	.....	95	.....	108	95	.....	101	109	.....	.....	93
1911	81	79	85	.....	.....	85	91	89	88	91	94	88	.....	96	.....	102	94	.....	130	117	.....	.....	92
1912	91	89	94	.....	.....	91	91	91	94	93	99	98	.....	97	.....	105	102	.....	135	115	.....	.....	98
1913	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1914	102	106	103	104	104	105	102	102	99	102	102	94	104	100	113	104	105	101	108	108	100	100	102
1915	101	103	101	101	100	96	100	97	93	97	99	93	105	99	125	126	108	104	89	120	101	100	101
1916	108	110	107	107	106	108	106	109	111	111	109	103	117	102	130	135	113	105	159	146	100	100	114
1917	124	130	126	131	130	152	152	142	175	134	139	127	150	125	164	211	192	119	253	169	101	107	146
1918	153	165	155	166	170	186	196	178	211	177	165	151	162	156	175	203	227	148	188	176	102	119	168
1919	164	174	164	169	167	201	205	199	234	193	182	177	193	174	179	218	213	174	224	205	145	129	186
1920	172	177	168	164	151	201	194	206	187	210	197	183	188	188	205	245	217	209	371	353	158	135	203
1921	153	154	147	133	118	166	158	181	114	186	148	135	154	164	177	176	150	109	182	145	122	128	153
1922: Av. for year.	**147**	**145**	**139**	**123**	**106**	**157**	**147**	**131**	**108**	**169**	**129**	**125**	**142**	**147**	**155**	**155**	**130**	**109**	**165**	**133**	**121**	**125**	**142**
January	139	136	135	119	106	138	139	164	97	173	145	118	149	153	157	148	130	107	194	113	120	126	142
February	139	135	134	118	106	140	140	173	101	173	140	120	149	148	154	155	130	107	194	116	119	125	142
March	141	138	136	121	107	149	144	185	109	177	92	120	149	146	155	161	130	107	182	118	119	124	139
April	143	141	138	122	107	157	147	188	107	177	92	118	145	143	155	161	130	108	171	122	120	124	139
May	148	146	141	124	107	164	147	191	108	177	97	117	139	140	157	161	127	109	176	120	120	125	139
June	151	150	142	126	107	161	150	193	109	173	99	117	141	140	157	161	130	110	206	129	121	125	141
July	154	153	144	127	106	164	150	194	109	168	104	119	143	144	157	158	130	110	212	138	121	125	142
August	154	153	142	125	104	167	150	189	109	164	108	115	144	146	155	155	130	110	153	147	121	126	139
September	152	151	142	125	104	173	150	180	109	164	130	122	145	147	155	148	130	110	135	144	121	125	140
October	151	148	141	124	106	174	151	177	111	163	157	133	154	149	155	145	130	110	129	144	122	125	143
November	147	144	139	123	105	157	151	172	111	159	187	143	161	151	155	145	130	109	124	147	122	126	145
December	145	141	138	121	105	140	149	169	111	158	193	157	166	154	154	148	133	109	124	151	123	126	147
1923:																							
January	146	142	139	123	107	140	147	168	110	162	161	154	169	154	155	148	133	109	124	151	124	126	144
February	146	141	139	122	106	137	146	167	110	167	134	151	170	154	155	148	133	108	124	158	126	127	142
March	147	142	139	122	106	135	145	167	110	168	112	150	168	153	155	145	133	108	129	185	127	127	142
April	149	145	140	123	105	135	145	168	111	169	100	150	164	153	155	148	133	108	147	193	128	127	143
May	152	148	142	124	106	143	145	169	109	170	102	136	161	152	155	145	133	108	159	204	128	127	143

TREND IN THE RETAIL COST OF ALL ARTICLES OF FOOD, COMBINED, FOR THE UNITED STATES, BY MONTHS, JANUARY, 1914, TO MAY, 1923.

[1913=100.]



Retail Prices of Food in 51 Cities on Specified Dates.

AVERAGE retail food prices are shown in Table 5 for 39 cities 12 other cities prices are shown for the same dates with the bureau until after 1913.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

[The prices shown in this table are computed from reports sent monthly to the Bureau by retail dealers.

Article.	Unit.	Atlanta, Ga.				Baltimore, Md.				Birmingham, Ala.			
		May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
		1913	1922			1913	1922			1913	1922		
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Sirloin steak	Pound	24.0	35.7	34.4	34.9	23.3	36.0	36.1	37.3	26.8	34.8	35.2	36.0
Round steak	do	21.0	32.1	30.5	31.1	22.0	32.9	33.1	34.0	22.5	30.5	30.7	31.2
Rib roast	do	19.1	28.1	27.0	26.4	18.7	29.0	29.0	29.3	19.9	25.3	26.1	26.4
Chuck roast	do	14.9	19.2	19.5	19.8	15.7	18.9	19.4	19.7	16.8	20.0	20.7	21.2
Plate beef	do	10.8	13.1	11.8	12.1	12.8	12.5	12.8	12.7	10.5	13.0	13.1	13.6
Pork chops	do	22.5	33.1	26.7	27.3	18.3	34.0	28.5	30.2	20.8	32.0	28.1	28.4
Bacon, sliced	do	31.0	38.8	35.5	35.9	23.3	33.5	34.6	34.4	33.1	42.0	40.1	40.1
Ham, sliced	do	29.0	49.7	45.6	45.6	31.0	54.9	52.0	52.3	30.0	50.4	45.4	45.0
Lamb, leg of	do	20.0	40.5	35.5	35.9	18.0	39.2	36.2	37.3	21.7	39.0	38.8	38.3
Hens	do	19.6	30.6	31.1	31.1	22.6	38.7	39.8	39.1	18.0	30.9	31.3	31.7
Salmon, canned, red	do	.....	30.6	29.6	30.0	.....	27.1	26.8	26.6	.....	30.9	31.1	30.7
Milk, fresh	Quart	10.0	15.7	16.7	16.0	8.8	12.0	13.0	13.0	10.3	20.0	18.5	18.5
Milk, evaporated	15-16-oz. can	.....	13.4	14.3	14.2	.....	10.4	12.0	11.9	.....	12.2	13.3	13.3
Butter	Pound	39.3	47.5	58.4	54.6	38.6	50.2	62.3	58.1	41.0	47.1	61.1	55.5
Oleomargarine	do	.....	28.9	32.4	32.4	.....	24.9	26.0	26.3	.....	31.8	33.9	34.2
Nut margarine	do	.....	25.8	26.8	27.3	.....	25.7	27.1	26.7	.....	27.5	31.2	31.3
Cheese	do	25.0	29.6	35.4	33.7	22.0	30.7	37.5	37.4	21.8	29.0	36.5	35.4
Lard	do	15.5	18.1	17.8	17.6	14.3	15.8	17.0	16.6	15.8	17.2	17.6	17.3
Vegetable lard substitute	do	.....	22.1	20.4	20.7	.....	20.3	21.6	21.8	.....	21.6	18.8	19.6
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	22.6	32.0	32.0	32.9	22.4	31.0	31.7	33.1	23.8	30.6	32.9	33.1
Bread	Pound	6.0	10.0	9.2	9.2	5.4	8.6	8.4	8.4	5.3	9.2	8.9	8.9
Flour	do	3.7	5.8	5.6	5.5	3.2	5.1	4.5	4.4	3.8	5.9	5.9	5.9
Corn meal	do	2.5	2.8	3.4	3.5	2.4	3.1	3.2	3.2	2.2	2.8	3.1	3.2
Rolled oats	do	.....	9.8	9.1	9.4	.....	8.4	8.6	8.4	.....	9.6	9.4	9.4
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	.....	9.7	9.8	9.8	.....	9.2	9.0	8.9	.....	9.8	10.0	9.9
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	.....	27.2	26.2	26.2	.....	24.6	23.2	23.0	.....	26.8	26.8	26.5
Macaroni	Pound	.....	21.9	21.0	21.0	.....	18.7	19.4	18.9	.....	18.6	18.9	18.8
Rice	do	8.6	9.3	8.4	8.5	9.0	9.2	8.9	9.2	8.2	9.0	9.2	9.2
Beans, navy	do	.....	11.0	12.9	12.7	.....	9.2	11.0	10.9	.....	10.3	12.4	12.5
Potatoes	do	2.0	4.4	3.5	3.6	1.9	3.4	2.4	2.7	1.9	4.2	3.5	3.9
Onions	do	.....	10.4	8.0	9.4	.....	10.0	6.9	7.7	.....	10.9	8.6	9.7
Cabbage	do	.....	4.4	8.6	7.4	.....	4.7	8.8	7.5	.....	5.1	9.5	8.4
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	.....	13.3	13.4	13.5	.....	11.7	12.2	11.8	.....	15.0	14.2	14.4
Corn, canned	do	.....	16.2	15.9	15.6	.....	14.3	14.6	14.5	.....	16.6	17.0	16.9
Peas, canned	do	.....	17.4	18.4	18.5	.....	16.4	16.3	16.4	.....	20.5	20.4	20.4
Tomatoes, canned	do	.....	14.1	13.4	13.1	.....	11.4	12.0	12.0	.....	13.1	11.8	11.8
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.3	7.2	11.2	11.5	4.5	5.8	9.8	10.5	5.2	6.7	10.8	11.6
Tea	do	60.0	88.2	92.6	94.4	56.0	66.1	66.7	65.7	61.3	79.7	82.8	83.7
Coffee	do	32.0	35.8	37.1	37.2	25.2	31.0	33.3	33.2	28.8	36.4	38.6	39.0
Prunes	do	.....	21.1	21.2	20.7	.....	18.6	17.6	17.7	.....	22.0	20.9	21.3
Raisins	do	.....	25.3	20.1	20.2	.....	22.6	15.2	15.2	.....	25.1	19.9	19.6
Bananas	Dozen	.....	27.0	25.0	26.3	.....	24.5	27.6	27.3	.....	33.8	34.8	35.7
Oranges	do	.....	50.5	45.6	48.6	.....	65.4	52.3	63.1	.....	57.3	49.5	56.0

[1] The steak for which prices are here quoted is called "sirloin" in this city, but in most of the other cities included in this report it would be known as "porterhouse" steak.

for May 15, 1913, and 1922, and for April 15, and May 15, 1923. For exception of May, 1913, as these cities were not scheduled by the

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES.

As some dealers occasionally fail to report the number of quotations varies from month to month.

Boston, Mass.				Bridgeport, Conn.			Buffalo, N. Y.				Butte, Mont.			Charleston, S. C.			
May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
1913	1922						1913	1922						1913	1922		
Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
[1] 37.0	[1] 58.3	[1] 59.0	[1] 61.1	41.9	43.5	44.9	22.3	35.5	36.7	37.0	32.0	29.4	31.0	21.8	36.8	35.9	36.5
34.0	47.6	46.8	49.1	35.9	36.7	37.9	19.3	29.6	30.3	30.9	27.6	25.4	26.0	20.5	35.4	33.8	33.5
24.4	34.1	35.5	35.6	32.7	33.2	34.7	17.5	26.6	27.3	27.3	25.7	22.9	23.5	20.8	30.0	29.7	29.0
17.0	23.0	23.0	23.4	22.1	22.7	23.2	15.3	19.2	19.7	19.8	17.9	16.1	17.7	15.0	22.5	21.8	20.5
.....	14.6	14.6	14.9	9.9	10.0	9.9	11.8	11.7	11.8	11.6	12.9	11.3	11.8	12.0	15.5	14.5	14.2
23.4	38.4	30.3	33.2	35.8	29.7	32.0	19.8	37.0	30.0	32.9	34.8	27.8	28.1	22.3	33.8	29.5	30.0
25.4	36.2	37.5	37.8	44.3	44.1	45.1	22.0	32.7	32.5	32.7	50.0	46.8	47.5	25.5	36.0	35.2	34.6
31.8	59.8	50.0	51.1	62.9	52.5	52.1	25.7	50.2	45.4	44.8	57.1	50.0	49.6	26.7	50.7	40.8	41.3
23.5	41.9	38.0	39.9	41.1	36.3	38.1	18.7	34.9	32.1	31.9	32.7	30.7	32.5	21.3	45.5	44.8	41.9
25.6	41.9	39.0	39.6	40.6	39.0	39.8	22.5	38.5	37.1	36.7	37.4	30.6	31.9	21.4	38.2	38.0	37.3
.....	30.9	29.0	28.9	32.8	30.4	30.5	.....	27.5	26.9	27.5	36.1	37.5	38.2	.....	28.0	26.6	26.3
8.9	12.9	13.9	13.9	12.0	15.0	14.0	8.0	12.0	13.0	12.5	14.0	14.2	14.2	11.7	18.7	18.0	18.0
.....	11.5	12.7	12.8	10.9	12.5	12.5	.....	10.1	11.8	11.8	11.5	12.4	12.5	.....	10.7	12.2	12.1
36.0	46.3	60.4	53.9	45.7	59.1	54.2	34.1	44.1	57.3	51.5	44.3	52.7	50.8	36.2	45.1	57.7	52.0
.....	29.6	31.0	31.7	25.5	28.0	28.3	.....	27.1	28.3	28.5	30.0	30.0	30.0	.....	26.6	28.0	28.2
.....	26.7	26.3	25.6	24.0	27.8	27.8	.....	26.1	27.3	27.1	30.0	31.7	32.2	.....	28.0	28.0	28.0
22.1	33.9	38.8	38.1	32.1	37.5	37.3	19.0	29.4	36.1	35.4	34.9	37.1	37.1	20.3	27.3	34.4	31.8
16.0	17.5	18.0	17.5	16.1	17.5	17.1	14.3	15.5	16.6	16.2	20.9	21.3	20.9	15.0	18.3	18.8	18.7
.....	22.3	24.3	24.3	21.1	22.1	23.2	.....	19.6	22.1	22.1	25.1	26.3	26.3	.....	22.0	22.8	22.5
32.1	44.6	48.5	49.4	42.4	41.9	44.0	25.4	33.8	35.9	36.8	34.4	38.5	39.4	25.4	32.5	33.8	32.9
5.9	8.5	8.4	8.4	8.3	8.3	8.3	5.6	8.6	8.3	8.4	9.8	9.7	9.7	6.0	9.5	9.5	10.2
3.7	6.1	5.4	5.4	5.3	4.9	4.9	3.0	5.0	4.2	4.3	5.9	5.5	5.5	3.7	6.1	6.0	6.0
3.6	4.4	5.1	5.1	7.1	6.5	6.7	2.5	3.6	3.6	3.7	4.0	3.8	3.9	2.3	3.0	3.1	3.1
.....	8.2	9.0	8.9	8.3	8.4	8.5	.....	7.4	7.6	7.5	6.9	6.7	6.7	.....	9.8	9.4	9.5
.....	10.4	10.0	9.9	9.5	9.6	9.6	.....	9.3	9.2	9.2	12.1	11.9	11.9	.....	10.5	10.0	10.0
.....	26.0	24.9	24.9	25.3	23.6	23.5	.....	24.9	24.5	24.1	29.3	28.8	28.8	.....	25.0	25.0	25.0
.....	23.9	23.6	23.6	24.5	23.9	24.2	.....	22.3	21.5	21.5	22.6	21.3	21.3	.....	19.8	20.3	20.6
9.2	10.3	10.8	10.7	9.8	10.2	10.2	9.3	9.3	9.3	8.9	9.6	9.6	9.8	5.5	6.7	6.3	6.3
.....	9.3	10.7	10.5	10.1	11.8	11.9	.....	8.9	11.3	11.4	9.3	10.4	10.4	.....	10.1	12.1	11.9
1.8	2.3	3.0	3.1	2.7	2.9	3.4	1.4	2.4	2.3	2.4	1.5	1.3	1.2	2.0	3.5	2.8	2.9
.....	10.2	6.9	7.9	8.9	7.6	9.3	.....	9.4	6.3	8.1	12.9	4.7	4.7	.....	9.3	6.5	7.3
.....	7.2	10.8	9.1	6.6	9.8	9.3	.....	5.6	8.5	8.6	6.3	6.4	7.9	.....	3.2	5.4	4.7
.....	14.5	14.3	14.5	11.7	11.9	12.1	.....	10.8	11.4	11.1	19.3	17.5	17.5	.....	11.3	11.2	11.4
.....	18.6	19.2	19.2	18.4	19.1	18.9	.....	14.5	15.2	14.8	17.3	15.3	15.2	.....	14.7	14.5	14.5
.....	21.4	21.4	21.2	19.9	20.8	21.3	.....	16.7	16.2	16.5	16.8	16.3	16.3	.....	19.3	18.0	18.0
.....	14.0	12.6	12.5	13.4	13.3	13.5	.....	13.7	13.6	13.7	16.4	15.1	15.1	.....	12.0	11.0	11.0
5.2	6.4	10.5	11.1	6.1	9.8	10.9	5.3	6.3	10.3	10.9	8.6	12.2	13.6	5.0	6.0	10.0	10.8
58.6	67.3	68.8	69.6	56.4	57.9	57.9	45.0	58.4	61.7	62.5	78.8	80.0	82.5	50.0	74.6	71.5	71.5
33.0	41.0	43.3	43.3	34.6	35.9	36.2	29.3	33.8	35.7	35.8	45.2	45.0	45.4	26.0	32.3	33.4	33.8
.....	20.4	20.0	19.5	20.0	19.7	18.7	.....	19.4	18.8	19.1	20.7	20.6	20.4	.....	20.0	20.0	19.7
.....	21.6	16.3	16.3	24.2	17.4	17.1	.....	20.9	16.2	15.8	27.7	21.6	21.3	.....	24.9	16.9	16.7
.....	45.3	48.2	45.0	35.9	36.2	35.5	.....	43.1	46.3	45.6	[2] 14.8	[2] 15.4	[2] 14.6	.....	33.0	36.9	38.1
.....	69.8	56.0	62.9	64.9	52.9	58.9	.....	66.6	51.4	56.9	57.9	45.4	50.0	.....	58.8	49.6	52.7

[1] Per pound.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article.	Unit.	Chicago, Ill.				Cincinnati, Ohio.				Cleveland, Ohio.			
		May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
		1913	1922			1913	1922			1913	1922		
		Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
Sirloin steak	Pound	22.6	36.7	38.2	38.5	23.9	33.6	33.8	34.5	25.2	35.0	34.6	36.5
Round steak	do	19.1	28.4	29.4	29.6	21.0	30.1	30.6	31.1	22.0	28.9	28.5	29.4
Rib roast	do	19.1	29.0	29.8	30.1	19.3	27.7	28.2	28.4	20.0	24.7	24.9	26.1
Chuck roast	do	15.2	19.0	19.5	19.5	15.6	17.9	18.1	18.3	17.2	19.1	19.3	19 0
Plate beef	do	11.3	11.6	11.9	11.9	12.4	13.4	14.0	14.4	12.1	11.4	11.0	10.9
Pork chops	do	18.0	32.4	24.7	27.7	19.5	35.2	28.3	28.5	21.0	34.6	28.0	30.6
Bacon, sliced	do	31.4	46.4	44.8	45.2	25.7	32.3	33.0	33.5	27.1	38.5	39.5	39.0
Ham, sliced	do	32.5	50.9	47.4	48.0	28.5	53.7	46.0	48.5	36.0	51.0	46.4	47.1
Lamb, leg of	do	20.3	39.1	34.4	34.6	16.8	38.8	34.7	35.8	21.0	36.4	34.1	33.9
Hens	do	21.2	35.2	35.4	34.7	24.6	38.1	38.1	38.0	22.9	37.7	38.1	37.2
Salmon, canned, red	do	.....	32.7	31.4	32.8	.....	28.1	28.0	27.8	.....	30.7	29.3	29.3
Milk, fresh	Quart	8.0	12.0	13.0	13.0	8.0	12.0	12.0	12.0	8.0	11.0	14.0	14.0
Milk, evaporated	15–16-oz. can	.....	10 0	11.2	11.3	.....	10.3	11.5	11.4	.....	10.4	11.8	11.8
Butter	Pound	32.5	41.1	54.3	49.0	35.9	42.0	55.0	48.7	36.8	46.0	58.4	51.9
Oleomargarine	do	.....	23.1	25.5	25.4	.....	28.1	29.7	29.7	.....	27.8	29.0	29.1
Nut margarine	do	.....	22.5	24.4	24.8	.....	26.5	28.2	28.0	.....	25.9	27.3	27.7
Cheese	do	25.3	32.9	40.4	40.1	21.0	31.7	36.0	35.5	23.0	29.4	37.1	35.1
Lard	do	14.7	16.3	16.7	16.4	14.1	14.7	16.0	15.3	16.5	17.4	18.3	18.1
Vegetable lard substitute	do	.....	21.9	23.3	23.3	.....	20.8	22.8	23.0	.....	21.6	24.1	24.3
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	23.7	34.0	36.7	36.6	22.0	29.8	29.7	31.6	25.6	33.7	35.2	35.3
Bread	Pound	6.1	9.7	9.7	9.7	4.8	8.4	8.4	8.4	5.5	7.9	7.9	8.2
Flour	do	2.8	4.9	4.1	4.1	3.3	5.3	4.5	4.5	3.2	5.3	4.8	4.9
Corn meal	do	2.9	5.0	5.1	5.1	2.6	2.8	2.9	3.0	2.7	3.4	3.6	3.7
Rolled oats	do	.....	8.0	8.2	8.0	.....	8.3	8.1	8.6	.....	8.7	8.5	8.6
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	.....	9.5	9.5	9.4	.....	9.6	9.5	9.3	.....	10.6	9.8	9.7
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	.....	24.7	23.7	23.5	.....	24.6	23.2	22.9	.....	25.6	23.9	23.9
Macaroni	Pound	.....	18.[illegible]	18.0	18.2	.....	17.0	16.4	16.2	.....	20.5	19.5	19.5
Rice	do	8.7	9.[illegible]	10.2	10.1	8.8	9.5	8.7	9.0	8.5	8.9	8.8	9.1
Beans, navy	do	.....	9.[illegible]	11.6	11.8	.....	9.0	10.8	10.7	.....	9.4	11.5	11.3
Potatoes	do	1.3	2.8	2.2	2.2	1.6	3.6	2.3	2.4	1.5	3.1	2.5	2.7
Onions	do	.....	8.5	6.4	8.2	.....	8.9	6.8	7.8	.....	9.7	6.4	9.2
Cabbage	do	.....	5.4	8.8	8.4	.....	5.3	8.3	8.0	.....	6.0	9.9	8.3
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	.....	12.6	12.9	12.8	.....	11.2	11.6	11.6	.....	11.9	12.9	12.7
Corn, canned	do	.....	14.3	14.7	14.8	.....	14.6	13.9	13.9	.....	15.8	15.3	15.2
Peas, canned	do	.....	15.6	16.1	16.3	.....	17.0	16.5	16.5	.....	17.8	16.7	16.9
Potatoes, canned	do	.....	14.1	13.6	14.1	.....	13.8	12.4	12.3	.....	13.9	13.7	14.1
Sugar, granulated	Pound	4.9	6.2	10.0	10.4	5.0	6.6	10.4	10.8	5.1	6.7	10.8	11.1
Tea	do	53.3	62.0	70.2	69.9	60.0	69.1	69.3	70.3	50.0	65.2	68.7	68.7
Coffee	do	30.7	34.2	38.8	38.6	25.6	31.2	34.1	34.0	26.5	35.8	40.5	40.5
Prunes	do	.....	20.8	20.3	20.3	.....	20.1	19.4	19.1	.....	19.5	19.4	19.5
Raisins	do	.....	24.7	18.5	18.3	.....	22.1	18.5	18.0	.....	22.3	17.3	17.3
Bananas	Dozen	.....	35.3	38.0	38.5	.....	37.0	40.7	40.3	.....	43.7	48.5	46.9
Oranges	do	.....	58.6	52.6	53.3	.....	64.2	49.3	55.1	.....	61.2	51.9	55.7

[1] The steak for which prices are here quoted is called "rump" in this city, but in most of the other cities included in this report it would be known as "porterhouse" steak.

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Columbus, Ohio.			Dallas, Tex.				Denver, Colo.				Detroit, Mich.				Fall River, Mich.			
			May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	1913	1922			1913	1922			1913	1922			1913	1922		
Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
33.9	33.4	34.6	22.5	37.2	34.5	35.0	23.9	30.5	29.4	30.6	23.8	35.4	37.0	38.0	34.5	53.5	[1] 55.9	56.4
29.1	29.3	30.8	20.3	34.6	31.0	31.5	21.8	25.7	24.8	26.4	19.4	27.5	27.9	29.3	27.0	40.8	41.7	42.8
26.3	25.4	25.5	19.2	28.9	26.5	27.0	17.8	23.7	21.3	22.4	19.2	26.6	25.9	26.7	23.8	27.5	26.8	27.0
19.7	19.7	20.5	16.3	22.3	21.3	22.1	15.8	17.3	16.4	16.8	15.0	18.0	18.7	18.5	18.5	20.6	19.8	20.1
12.4	13.4	12.8	12.9	18.3	15.1	15.7	9.4	10.2	9.4	9.7	11.5	11.5	11.4	11.3	.....	11.9	11.9	11.6
32.1	25.6	26.8	20.8	35.8	26.5	27.5	20.3	32.1	26.3	27.5	19.2	35.1	26.8	29.8	22.5	33.7	27.3	28.6
36.9	36.7	36.6	38.0	45.9	38.6	39.3	28.0	43.2	43.3	43.2	23.5	39.5	39.3	39.2	25.8	38.5	38.7	37.7
51.5	45.1	45.4	31.3	55.4	50.0	50.0	30.0	56.4	49.0	50.0	25.9	56.2	48.0	48.6	31.3	54.0	46.2	46.6
35.8	34.0	33.8	22.0	44.2	43.0	43.0	17.9	36.2	33.9	34.7	17.8	40.4	37.1	38.2	20.5	40.8	38.9	38.7
34.8	34.0	34.3	19.1	32.3	30.1	30.0	21.6	33.8	30.4	31.6	22.4	38.1	38.5	37.3	25.8	44.4	41.8	41.6
31.9	31.6	31.3	.....	31.9	32.5	32.5	.....	36.0	32.9	33.3	.....	30.2	29.0	29.8	.....	31.5	30.7	31.0
11.0	12.0	12.0	10.0	12.0	15.0	15.0	8.4	9.8	11.8	11.8	8.0	12.0	14.0	14.0	9.0	13.0	14.0	14.0
10.0	11.8	11.8	.....	12.6	13.7	14.0	.....	10.6	11.7	11.7	.....	10.5	11.7	11.8	.....	12.4	13.4	13.5
42.3	53.9	48.8	36.0	44.4	57.2	50.9	34.3	39.8	54.4	47.6	34.7	43.3	58.5	52.6	36.4	45.1	58.2	52.4
24.6	27.4	27.3	.....	28.0	27.3	26.7	.....	29.0	29.2	28.6	.....	25.6	28.6	28.9	.....	28.5	30.0	31.3
24.2	26.7	27.1	.....	29.4	31.0	30.8	.....	28.0	28.5	28.7	.....	25.2	24.9	27.2	.....	31.8	28.3	27.7
27.5	34.9	33.6	20.0	30.7	34.7	33.6	26.1	32.7	37.3	37.2	20.3	28.8	36.0	35.3	23.8	33.5	38.2	37.3
14.1	15.0	14.7	17.0	20.4	20.8	20.5	16.3	18.7	19.1	19.1	16.1	16.4	17.6	17.5	15.0	16.1	16.9	16.8
22.0	22.9	22.6	.....	21.2	21.2	21.0	.....	23.4	21.6	20.6	.....	21.7	22.1	23.2	.....	21.8	23.7	23.7
27.8	28.0	28.2	21.0	29.5	27.2	27.8	23.6	31.9	32.2	32.0	25.0	33.7	36.1	36.7	30.3	43.8	45.1	45.4
8.0	7.9	7.9	5.5	9.1	8.9	8.9	5.4	8.2	8.2	8.2	5.6	8.6	8.6	8.6	6.2	9.5	9.1	9.1
4.9	4.5	4.4	3.3	5.0	4.6	4.6	2.6	4.2	3.9	3.9	3.1	5.0	4.3	4.3	3.3	5.6	5.1	5.1
3.1	3.0	3.1	2.7	3.4	3.6	3.6	2.4	3.1	3.2	3.1	2.8	4.1	4.3	4.3	3.4	5.9	5.7	5.8
9.0	8.9	9.0	.....	10.6	10.6	10.6	.....	9.4	9.2	9.2	.....	9.5	9.0	9.1	.....	9.7	9.8	9.8
9.6	10.1	10.0	.....	11.4	10.8	10.8	.....	10.4	9.9	9.9	.....	9.3	9.0	8.9	8.9	11.0	9.9	9.9
25.8	23.7	23.6	.....	26.0	25.8	25.8	.....	25.5	24.6	24.6	.....	25.1	24.0	24.0	.....	27.7	27.5	26.8
20.0	18.4	18.3	.....	21.0	21.0	21.0	.....	21.2	21.0	21.2	.....	18.9	18.8	18.9	.....	24.0	24.0	24.0
11.0	10.0	9.7	9.3	10.3	10.4	10.5	8.6	10.0	9.7	9.7	8.4	9.6	9.6	9.8	10.0	10.1	10.1	10.1
9.7	11.4	10.6	.....	10.5	11.4	11.8	.....	9.9	12.1	12.2	.....	9.3	10.9	11.0	.....	9.4	10.9	11.0
3.0	2.2	2.2	1.8	3.8	3.6	3.7	1.2	2.7	2.0	2.3	1.3	2.5	1.8	1.8	1.8	2.4	2.9	3.0
10.3	8.3	9.5	.....	9.9	7.9	8.8	.....	10.6	5.1	7.1	.....	8.9	5.9	8.4	.....	10.3	6.0	7.8
6.3	9.8	9.1	.....	5.7	7.8	7.9	.....	6.9	7.9	8.4	.....	5.6	8.3	8.1	.....	7.3	10.4	8.6
12.8	13.5	13.4	.....	15.6	15.0	14.4	.....	14.2	14.2	14.5	.....	11.5	12.1	12.3	.....	13.3	13.1	13.1
12.9	12.3	12.5	.....	17.8	16.4	16.3	.....	14.8	14.9	14.8	.....	14.7	15.1	15.0	.....	16.1	15.8	16.1
15.4	14.6	15.0	.....	22.1	20.9	20.8	.....	17.1	16.3	16.5	.....	16.6	17.8	16.8	.....	17.8	18.0	17.9
14.7	12.8	13.0	.....	14.5	14.3	14.1	.....	13.3	13.6	13.3	.....	13.4	12.9	13.2	.....	13.4	13.7	13.7
6.8	10.5	10.9	5.7	7.3	11.3	11.7	5.3	7.4	11.5	12.1	4.9	6.5	10.4	10.9	5.3	6.7	10.6	11.3
78.1	75.1	74.6	66.7	90.6	91.8	92.7	52.8	69.6	68.1	68.8	43.3	61.3	64.7	62.7	44.2	54.0	60.4	60.6
34.4	37.6	37.7	36.7	41.1	43.1	43.0	29.4	35.8	36.5	37.2	29.3	35.5	38.9	38.0	33.0	38.2	39.4	39.9
19.6	20.3	20.0	.....	23.5	23.1	23.1	.....	21.1	20.7	21.0	.....	20.9	19.1	20.2	.....	18.5	18.4	18.2
23.4	17.8	17.2	.....	26.5	20.0	19.3	.....	24.9	19.0	17.9	.....	23.3	17.2	17.2	.....	24.4	18.2	18.2
37.3	38.6	39.0	.....	35.6	34.2	33.3	.....	[2] 11.7	[2] 12.6	[2] 11.8	.....	33.9	33.9	34.4	.....	[2] 10.4	[2] 10.9	[2] 10.6
60.2	50.0	57.9	.....	64.4	52.9	53.8	.....	59.2	49.0	51.9	.....	59.2	52.2	57.4	.....	62.4	52.5	56.2

[2] Per pound

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article.	Unit.	Houston, Tex.			Indianapolis, Ind.				Jacksonville, Fla.			
		May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
					1913	1922			1913	1922		
		Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
Sirloin steak[1]	Pound	32.5	30.9	30.9	24.7	35.0	35.0	35.4	26.0	36.7	35.0	34.5
Round steak	do	31.6	30.2	29.9	23.3	33.2	33.6	34.3	22.0	31.3	29.5	29.0
Rib roast	do	26.1	24.4	24.6	17.9	26.1	25.5	25.3	23.3	27.3	27.7	25.5
Chuck roast	do	21.6	20.4	20.4	16.1	21.0	21.8	21.6	14.0	18.5	17.4	17.5
Plate beef	do	16.7	16.3	16.0	12.1	14.0	13.9	13.4	10.3	10.2	10.6	10.8
Pork chops	do	29.4	26.6	27.8	21.7	33.2	27.4	28.3	21.3	34.2	28.6	29.8
Bacon, sliced	do	50.2	46.2	45.6	29.0	38.5	37.8	37.6	26.3	36.0	37.3	35.5
Ham, sliced	do	51.4	47.7	43.8	30.3	55.4	48.4	49.6	28.3	50.0	44.1	42.5
Lamb, leg of	do	37.5	35.0	34.4	20.7	41.4	39.2	40.8	19.3	39.2	36.7	34.0
Hens	do	31.1	33.2	33.0	22.0	35.4	34.8	34.8	22.0	34.6	34.0	33.7
Salmon, canned, red	do	31.8	30.8	30.8	.....	39.3	36.1	36.1	.....	31.0	30.5	31.7
Milk, fresh	Quart	15.3	15.8	15.3	8.0	10.0	12.0	12.0	12.5	14.7	17.3	17.3
Milk, evaporated	15–16-oz. can.	11.5	12.7	13.1	.....	10.1	11.8	11.6	.....	11.4	12.7	12.7
Butter	Pound	43.8	54.7	50.7	34.7	42.1	55.3	48.8	39.2	46.1	59.8	52.9
Oleomargarine	do	31.6	32.5	31.7	.....	27.1	28.8	29.0	.....	26.8	28.3	27.7
Nut margarine	do	28.6	28.9	28.8	.....	26.2	26.8	27.2	.....	27.0	27.3	26.5
Cheese	do	27.7	33.5	32.5	20.8	30.9	35.5	34.6	22.5	27.8	34.1	32.3
Lard	do	18.1	19.1	19.8	15.2	14.5	14.5	14.4	15.5	17.3	18.1	18.0
Vegetable lard substitute	do	24.4	18.7	18.7	.....	21.7	22.4	23.2	.....	22.5	22.0	22.0
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	28.1	27.2	28.1	21.8	28.5	28.4	29.3	28.8	33.7	33.7	34.0
Bread	Pound	7.0	7.2	7.2	5.1	8.1	8.5	8.5	6.5	10.7	10.2	10.3
Flour	do	5.4	5.0	5.0	3.2	5.0	4.8	4.7	3.8	6.1	5.6	5.7
Corn meal	do	3.6	3.6	3.6	2.5	2.9	3.2	3.2	2.9	3.0	3.3	3.4
Rolled oats	do	8.7	9.0	8.8	.....	7.9	7.5	7.3	.....	9.7	9.5	9.6
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg.	10.1	9.7	9.7	.....	9.6	9.0	8.9	.....	10.0	9.7	10.0
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg.	24.8	24.1	24.1	.....	26.3	24.8	24.6	.....	27.4	24.1	23.8
Macaroni	Pound	20.3	20.0	20.2	.....	19.1	18.5	18.2	.....	19.1	19.6	19.4
Rice	do	8.1	7.7	7.8	9.2	10.0	10.1	9.9	6.6	8.9	8.6	8.5
Beans, navy	do	9.8	10.6	10.6	.....	10.3	11.5	11.1	.....	10.5	11.9	12.0
Potatoes	do	4.4	3.6	3.7	1.3	2.7	1.9	2.0	2.3	4.0	3.3	3.7
Onions	do	8.7	7.3	7.4	.....	9.4	6.8	9.6	.....	9.9	7.0	7.2
Cabbage	do	4.4	5.6	5.7	.....	5.7	8.6	8.5	.....	3.9	4.8	4.9
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	13.7	13.5	13.7	.....	13.0	13.5	13.4	.....	11.7	12.0	12.2
Corn, canned	do	14.0	14.0	14.0	.....	14.3	13.5	13.3	.....	15.5	16.2	16.3
Peas, canned	do	19.0	18.7	18.7	.....	15.3	15.7	15.4	.....	17.8	15.8	16.9
Tomatoes, canned	do	13.9	12.0	12.1	.....	14.7	14.2	14.2	.....	12.8	11.4	11.4
Sugar, granulated	Pound	6.5	10.2	11.0	5.6	7.0	11.2	11.6	5.9	7.0	10.8	11.4
Tea	do	73.9	69.9	71.4	60.0	74.2	76.9	76.9	60.0	86.5	84.7	84.7
Coffee	do	30.8	34.2	34.2	30.8	36.6	38.1	38.2	34.5	38.2	39.5	39.2
Prunes	do	23.5	19.5	19.2	.....	21.2	20.8	20.8	.....	20.3	20.6	19.5
Raisins	do	24.3	18.3	18.2	.....	25.8	18.7	18.4	.....	24.7	19.6	19.1
Bananas	Dozen	29.6	29.0	30.4	.....	30.3	29.7	32.3	.....	26.5	25.6	30.0
Oranges	do	56.4	44.5	47.5	.....	60.2	50.4	50.4	.....	54.0	40.5	48.3

[1] The steak for which prices are here quoted is called "sirloin" in this city, but in most of the other cities included in this report it would be known as "porterhouse" steak.

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Kansas City, Mo.				Little Rock, Ark.				Los Angeles, Calif.				Louisville, Ky.				Manchester, N. H.			
May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
1913	1922			1913	1922			1913	1922			1913	1922			1913	1922		
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
24.7	35.6	36.0	36.4	26.3	33.2	33.3	33.3	24.0	35.0	34.1	34.3	23.2	31.3	31.2	32.1	[1]35.8	[1]51.9	[1]53.9	[1]55.3
21.6	31.2	30.2	30.2	20.0	30.7	30.0	30.8	20.8	28.7	27.7	27.7	19.6	28.6	27.7	28.5	28.8	42.5	44.6	44.5
18.4	25.1	25.0	25.1	19.4	26.6	25.9	26.1	19.1	28.2	28.8	28.8	17.6	23.4	23.1	23.8	20.7	26.2	26.1	26.0
14.9	17.4	17.7	17.8	16.3	20.9	19.8	20.0	15.5	18.3	18.0	17.5	14.9	17.9	17.3	17.6	16.8	21.4	20.6	20.4
12.0	11.0	10.7	10.9	13.5	15.0	14.6	14.6	12.4	12.7	13.1	12.7	12.4	13.3	13.7	13.4	.....	15.0	14.8	15.0
19.2	30.9	25.2	27.1	21.3	33.4	29.1	29.6	25.4	38.0	36.8	36.0	19.6	30.8	22.6	24.6	20.5	35.2	28.3	29.8
28.8	45.2	41.1	41.7	37.0	42.9	40.9	41.2	33.8	52.4	49.4	49.7	27.8	35.1	33.2	33.4	23.5	32.8	34.1	34.6
27.8	54.3	45.8	46.0	31.3	52.9	46.9	47.1	35.0	62.7	58.4	57.8	28.6	45.9	42.1	40.8	28.5	48.4	40.1	40.4
18.7	34.0	31.8	32.4	20.2	44.3	38.1	38.1	19.2	32.9	33.5	33.2	17.5	38.8	36.3	37.0	20.7	39.9	35.8	35.7
18.7	32.8	32.9	32.5	20.0	30.4	29.1	29.3	25.8	42.5	40.3	39.8	24.1	34.0	33.3	33.5	24.7	44.6	42.2	42.3
....	31.8	32.6	32.6	....	31.7	32.2	32.2	....	40.7	38.1	38.1	....	30.4	29.1	29.2	.....	31.2	29.8	29.5
8.7	12.0	13.3	13.3	10.0	13.0	15.3	15.3	10.0	14.0	15.0	15.0	8.8	9.0	12.0	12.0	8.0	12.0	13.0	13.0
....	11.2	12.6	12.3	....	12.0	13.4	13.5	....	10.1	10.7	10.8	....	11.0	12.1	12.4	.....	13.0	13.7	13.6
35.3	43.6	58.1	52.3	39.6	47.5	58.5	52.9	35.0	45.5	53.6	54.9	38.6	44.3	56.6	50.6	38.3	49.9	62.2	56.0
....	27.6	26.9	26.9	....	31.3	31.0	31.0	....	30.0	32.6	32.1	....	26.8	28.6	28.6	.....	27.6	29.2	29.6
....	27.6	27.6	27.3	....	29.1	29.0	28.0	....	27.7	29.4	28.5	....	26.0	25.7	26.4	.....	24.0	22.0	22.0
21.7	32.5	35.0	36.1	21.7	31.5	37.0	35.8	19.5	34.1	35.9	35.2	21.7	27.2	32.9	33.5	22.0	32.3	38.3	37.4
16.2	17.6	17.6	17.5	15.6	19.7	19.5	18.9	17.9	18.7	19.5	19.6	15.4	14.6	14.8	14.5	16.0	17.2	17.4	17.5
....	24.0	23.0	23.1	....	23.1	21.7	21.5	....	23.1	22.3	22.1	....	22.0	23.1	23.3	.....	22.5	20.2	20.9
21.4	29.1	31.3	30.6	23.0	28.8	29.1	29.8	27.5	34.5	36.4	37.8	21.7	26.0	28.0	29.0	28.3	40.9	42.9	42.5
6.0	7.8	8.2	8.1	6.0	8.4	8.2	8.2	6.2	9.1	9.0	9.0	5.7	8.8	8.4	8.4	6.1	8.0	8.4	8.4
3.0	4.9	4.5	4.5	3.6	5.6	5.4	5.4	3.6	5.0	4.8	4.7	3.6	5.5	5.4	5.3	3.4	5.7	5.2	5.2
2.5	4.4	4.5	4.6	2.4	2.8	3.1	3.1	3.2	4.3	4.3	4.3	2.3	2.5	2.9	2.9	3.6	4.7	4.6	4.6
....	8.4	8.4	8.4	....	10.2	10.6	10.6	....	10.1	9.8	9.8	....	8.0	8.3	8.3	.....	8.8	8.8	8.6
....	9.9	10.2	10.2	....	9.8	9.7	9.7	....	10.2	9.6	9.6	....	9.7	8.9	9.3	.....	9.8	9.6	9.8
....	25.7	25.5	25.4	....	26.8	25.1	25.5	....	24.7	23.3	23.2	....	24.6	23.7	23.8	.....	26.4	25.2	25.2
....	21.7	21.3	21.4	....	22.0	20.8	20.6	....	16.5	15.9	15.9	....	17.9	16.4	16.5	.....	25.2	24.9	24.9
8.7	9.0	9.6	9.3	8.3	8.3	8.1	7.8	7.7	9.4	9.6	9.5	8.1	9.0	8.1	8.3	8.5	9.1	8.9	9.0
....	10.7	11.7	11.8	....	11.5	12.1	12.4	....	9.0	10.0	9.9	....	8.9	10.4	10.0	.....	9.5	11.4	11.3
1.4	3.0	2.2	2.2	1.8	3.6	2.7	2.9	1.1	2.9	3.1	3.0	1.7	2.9	1.9	2.1	1.5	2.1	2.7	2.9
....	9.9	7.7	8.9	....	10.8	7.7	9.4	....	10.1	6.6	6.6	....	9.9	6.6	8.9	.....	9.4	6.8	7.3
....	5.7	9.0	8.1	....	6.1	9.2	8.9	....	4.1	4.6	4.5	....	5.2	8.4	8.4	.....	7.3	8.4	9.9
....	13.9	14.3	14.3	....	13.7	13.3	13.4	....	13.7	12.9	12.9	....	11.9	11.5	11.7	.....	15.4	14.9	14.5
....	13.8	13.8	13.3	....	15.7	15.3	15.6	....	16.9	16.9	17.1	....	15.0	13.5	13.3	.....	18.2	17.7	17.6
....	15.4	15.4	15.6	....	19.9	18.3	18.3	....	19.8	19.0	19.1	....	16.9	15.5	15.2	.....	21.9	20.6	20.9
....	14.3	13.7	13.7	....	14.6	13.6	13.5	....	[2]16.0	[2]15.2	[2]15.4	....	13.3	11.1	11.4	.....	[2]20.2	[2]20.6	[2]20.6
5.5	7.0	11.1	11.8	5.5	7.5	11.6	12.3	5.3	6.8	10.6	11.4	5.1	6.7	10.5	11.2	5.1	6.7	10.9	11.6
54.0	76.8	78.8	79.3	50.0	91.5	91.4	91.4	54.5	70.3	69.4	69.4	62.5	76.5	71.4	71.4	46.3	56.8	57.7	57.7
27.8	36.6	38.9	39.1	30.8	40.1	41.7	41.6	36.3	37.8	39.6	39.6	27.5	34.9	36.0	36.7	32.0	38.3	39.8	39.9
....	21.5	20.0	19.8	....	21.3	20.6	20.6	....	20.0	19.6	19.1	....	20.1	19.9	19.1	.....	19.7	19.5	18.8
....	27.4	20.3	19.9	....	25.0	20.7	20.6	....	24.1	17.8	17.9	....	23.7	18.2	17.0	.....	22.4	17.4	16.4
....	[4]12.0	[4]13.0	[4]12.9	....	[4]9.6	[4]10.3	[4]10.0	....	[4]11.0	[4]11.7	[4]11.4	....	36.8	37.5	38.1	.....	[4]9.8	[4]10.6	[4]10.3
....	60.6	47.0	54.5	....	61.3	52.9	56.8	....	39.6	37.0	41.4	....	54.1	42.7	46.2	.....	69.5	49.9	57.1

[1] No. 2½ can. [2] No. 3 can. [4] Per pound.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article.	Unit.	Memphis, Tenn.				Milwaukee, Wis.				Minneapolis, Minn.			
		May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
		1913	1922			1913	1922			1913	1922		
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Sirloin steak	Pound	23.2	31.7	31.9	32.2	22.0	36.0	35.9	36.7	22.2	31.3	31.3	32.6
Round steak	do	19.3	27.9	28.1	28.6	20.5	31.7	31.0	31.9	20.0	27.6	26.1	27.9
Rib roast	do	21.1	23.0	23.8	24.2	18.5	26.7	26.9	26.8	19.0	24.3	24.4	24.9
Chuck roast	do	15.5	16.6	18.2	17.3	16.5	20.8	21.0	21.2	15.5	18.8	19.2	19.7
Plate beef	do	12.2	12.2	13.7	13.0	11.5	12.1	12.0	11.9	10.3	9.0	9.6	9.9
Pork chops	do	20.4	30.5	23.8	25.2	19.5	33.8	26.5	29.1	18.4	33.1	26.6	29.3
Bacon, sliced	do	30.0	38.0	37.2	37.3	26.8	42.5	40.6	41.1	25.0	42.7	41.4	41.3
Ham, sliced	do	29.3	51.0	43.5	43.5	27.3	49.8	43.6	44.3	27.5	52.7	45.9	45.3
Lamb, leg of	do	20.8	38.6	36.4	35.3	20.0	41.0	36.1	37.7	17.0	36.7	33.7	33.3
Hens	do	20.0	31.1	29.5	29.6	22.0	36.6	36.6	37.0	21.2	33.7	32.9	32.9
Salmon, canned, red	do	.....	38.4	36.3	35.3	.....	32.1	33.5	34.1	.....	38.9	36.6	36.9
Milk, fresh	Quart	10.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	7.0	9.0	10.0	10.0	7.0	10.0	11.0	11.0
Milk, evaporated	15-16-oz. can	.....	12.0	12.5	12.5	.....	10.5	11.7	11.7	.....	11.5	12.5	12.5
Butter	Pound	38.6	41.6	56.5	49.7	33.5	41.5	53.6	48.2	33.4	40.3	52.0	46.9
Oleomargarine	do	.....	30.6	28.3	26.3	.....	24.4	26.7	26.7	.....	26.1	27.5	27.0
Nut margarine	do	.....	28.0	25.6	24.7	.....	23.9	25.6	25.5	.....	24.5	26.1	26.0
Cheese	do	21.3	26.5	33.2	31.7	21.3	27.5	34.2	33.7	19.8	29.3	35.0	34.1
Lard	do	15.5	16.2	16.5	15.8	15.5	17.2	17.7	17.8	15.4	16.4	17.0	17.1
Vegetable lard substitute	do	.....	22.2	22.3	21.1	.....	21.7	23.3	23.0	.....	23.1	24.2	24.4
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	22.9	30.0	31.8	31.3	21.3	29.3	30.5	31.2	21.4	28.7	31.6	30.6
Bread	Pound	6.0	9.2	9.0	9.0	5.6	9.1	8.9	8.9	5.6	8.9	9.0	9.0
Flour	do	3.6	5.6	5.6	5.5	3.1	5.0	4.2	4.2	2.9	5.3	4.6	4.6
Corn meal	do	2.0	2.7	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.7	3.9	4.0	2.4	3.9	4.0	4.0
Rolled oats	do	.....	9.5	9.3	9.4	.....	6.9	7.0	6.9	.....	7.7	8.7	9.0
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg.	.....	10.1	9.6	9.6	.....	9.4	9.2	9.2	.....	10.2	10.3	10.2
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg.	.....	26.7	24.2	24.5	.....	25.0	24.4	24.2	.....	25.6	24.4	24.4
Macaroni	Pound	.....	17.3	17.7	17.7	.....	17.1	17.5	17.4	.....	17.5	17.7	17.7
Rice	do	7.5	8.3	7.9	7.9	9.0	10.0	9.9	10.0	9.1	9.3	9.4	9.0
Beans, navy	do	.....	10.6	11.9	11.5	.....	9.6	11.6	11.6	.....	9.6	12.2	12.1
Potatoes	do	1.6	3.5	2.6	2.7	1.1	2.4	1.7	1.7	1.1	2.6	1.7	1.8
Onions	do	.....	8.1	6.3	7.2	.....	9.4	7.0	9.0	.....	11.1	5 5	8.1
Cabbage	do	.....	4.3	7.8	6.8	.....	5.8	9.3	9.2	.....	5.8	8.9	8.7
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	.....	13.3	13.0	13.0	.....	11.1	11.6	11.5	.....	14.0	14.3	14.3
Corn, canned	do	.....	14.6	14.7	15.2	.....	14.6	15.4	15.4	.....	13.3	13.5	13.1
Peas, canned	do	.....	18.7	17.7	17.9	.....	15.5	15.3	15.7	.....	15.6	15.9	15.8
Tomatoes, canned	do	.....	13.7	13.2	13.2	.....	14.7	13.8	14.0	.....	14.9	14.9	14.9
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.2	6.8	10.8	11.3	5.3	6.4	10.1	10.8	5.5	6.8	10.7	11.4
Tea	do	63.8	87.1	84.5	84.1	56.0	69.1	70.1	70.7	45.0	62.9	65.0	65.0
Coffee	do	27.5	37.7	37.2	37.4	27.5	32.4	35.3	35.7	30.8	40.1	41.9	41.7
Prunes	do	.....	20.9	20.1	19.7	.....	20.9	20.3	19.8	.....	21.5	21.8	21.7
Raisins	do	.....	26.4	19.0	19.4	.....	24.7	17.7	17.3	.....	25.1	18.6	18.3
Bananas	Dozen	.....	34.4	33.9	34.4	.....	[3] 9.6	[3] 10.1	[3] 10.2	.....	[3] 10.6	[3] 12.5	[3] 12.1
Oranges	do	.....	63.2	49.6	53.2	.....	63.0	51.0	55.0	.....	64.7	50.4	54.6

[1] Whole. [2] No. 3 can. [3] Per pound.

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Mobile, Ala.			Newark, N. J.				New Haven, Conn.				New Orleans, La.				New York, N. Y.			
			May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	1913	1922			1913	1922			1913	1922			1913	1922		
Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
30.8	32.3	33.1	26.8	40.2	42.4	43.6	31.6	45.8	47.8	48.2	22.0	32.8	32.4	33.1	26.3	40.3	40.4	41.4
29.8	31.5	32.3	26.6	38.9	38.9	40.6	28.4	37.9	38.9	39.0	19.0	29.0	28.8	29.2	25.0	39.4	38.7	39.6
25.8	26.2	27.7	21.2	33.1	33.5	34.6	23.4	33.0	33.6	34.3	20.0	28.4	28.5	27.8	22.3	35.5	35.1	35.8
20.2	20.6	21.0	17.6	19.2	20.5	21.6	18.8	22.8	24.5	24.8	15.5	20.5	20.2	19.5	16.3	20.8	21.8	21.6
16.2	16.0	16.2	12.0	11.5	12.1	12.3	.....	13.7	14.4	14.2	11.1	15.8	15.6	15.2	14.5	18.2	17.8	18.4
34.2	34.2	33.8	22.6	34.7	28.9	31.5	23.0	34.5	27.5	30.2	22.5	37.2	29.0	30.1	21.8	30.4	31.0	33.0
39.8	41.0	40.3	24.4	36.1	36.8	37.5	28.2	40.7	40.6	40.6	29.8	41.1	39.7	40.3	25.3	37.5	37.8	37.5
46.7	43.8	43.8	[1]20.3	[1]35.1	[1]26.8	[1]27.0	32.4	58.2	51.3	51.6	26.0	52.1	40.6	42.1	29.0	56.7	49.0	50.7
33.1	35.0	36.3	20.8	41.2	36.7	39.1	19.3	42.2	36.6	39.0	20.1	42.8	38.9	38.9	17.6	37.6	35.0	35.4
37.3	35.0	35.7	23.4	40.6	38.3	38.3	23.8	42.2	39.5	39.7	21.1	38.9	37.2	36.5	22.2	39.1	36.6	36.8
31.7	28.8	28.8	.....	28.4	29.9	27.4	.....	35.0	33.0	33.3	.....	36.1	37.8	37.2	.....	29.6	27.9	28.3
15.0	15.0	15.0	9.0	14.3	16.0	15.5	9.0	14.0	15.0	15.0	10.0	14.7	14.0	14.0	9.0	13.0	15.0	14.0
11.5	13.0	13.1	.....	10.2	11.9	11.9	.....	11.1	12.4	12.3	.....	10.7	11.9	11.8	.....	10.0	11.8	11.8
50.1	61.2	53.9	36.6	44.9	58.4	53.0	35.8	44.7	58.2	53.3	35.0	45.9	57.5	52.7	35.4	44.6	56.9	51.4
30.2	30.3	30.0	.....	28.4	29.2	29.4	.....	28.3	31.5	31.3	.....	27.5	30.0	29.9	.....	27.4	30.4	30.4
27.4	27.6	27.6	.....	25.4	27.0	27.3	.....	26.4	27.8	27.8	.....	26.2	28.8	28.9	.....	25.2	26.7	26.5
29.4	35.5	32.2	24.5	33.3	39.7	39.3	22.6	32.2	38.3	37.7	22.0	31.0	33.7	33.0	19.4	32.4	37.8	36.9
16.9	17.1	17.0	15.8	16.1	17.3	16.9	15.7	16.2	17.1	17.1	14.9	16.3	16.8	16.3	15.7	17.2	17.8	17.7
21.8	19.0	19.1	.....	21.0	22.4	22.4	.....	20.2	22.3	21.8	.....	23.2	22.8	22.8	.....	21.1	23.0	23.1
32.3	32.5	30.8	32.8	42.3	45.1	46.0	31.3	40.4	42.7	43.6	23.6	30.2	30.8	30.6	30.8	41.5	44.0	43.3
8.2	9.0	9.0	5.6	8.6	8.5	8.5	6.0	8.1	7.9	7.9	5.2	8.1	7.7	7.7	6.0	8.9	9.6	9.6
5.5	5.5	5.5	3.6	5.4	4.7	4.7	3.2	5.3	4.7	4.7	3.8	6.0	5.9	5.7	3.2	5.4	4.9	4.9
3.0	3.3	3.3	3.6	5.8	5.9	6.0	3.2	5.8	5.9	5.6	2.6	2.9	3.2	3.2	3.4	5.3	5.2	5.2
9.6	9.1	9.0	.....	7.3	8.2	8.1	.....	9.0	8.9	8.7	.....	8.7	8.5	8.5	.....	7.8	8.2	8.1
9.7	9.3	9.3	.....	8.9	8.9	8.8	.....	9.5	9.6	9.5	.....	9.6	9.4	9.4	.....	8.9	8.7	8.7
25.4	23.5	23.5	.....	25.2	24.1	23.4	.....	24.8	24.3	24.1	.....	24.8	23.9	24.0	.....	24.9	22.8	22.9
20.2	20.1	20.3	.....	21.5	21.4	21.4	.....	22.2	22.2	22.3	.....	9.8	9.0	8.8	.....	20.8	20.4	20.2
8.6	8.3	8.3	9.0	8.8	9.2	9.3	9.3	9.5	9.7	9.8	7.4	8.5	8.7	8.8	8.0	9.1	9.5	9.4
10.4	12.4	12.2	.....	9.3	10.9	11.1	.....	9.5	11.4	11.5	.....	9.7	10.8	10.9	.....	9.6	11.6	11.7
3.8	2.9	3.1	2.4	3.2	3.2	3.2	1.8	2.4	3.0	3.1	1.9	3.9	2.9	3.2	2.5	4.3	3.7	3.9
9.8	7.6	7.6	.....	9.3	7.2	8.9	.....	9.4	6.3	8.4	.....	4.9	6.5	4.6	.....	8.5	6.3	7.5
3.2	4.8	4.3	.....	5.8	10.0	7.6	.....	6.4	10.0	8.9	.....	5.3	4.8	4.3	.....	6.6	8.4	8.0
13.5	12.5	12.3	.....	11.0	10.7	10.9	.....	11.9	12.4	12.1	.....	12.7	13.1	12.9	.....	11.7	11.5	11.5
15.8	15.3	15.3	.....	15.3	14.4	14.3	.....	18.2	17.9	17.8	.....	13.3	13.7	13.7	.....	13.8	15.3	15.3
17.2	15.8	15.8	.....	18.2	16.6	16.7	.....	21.5	21.3	21.3	.....	16.5	17.3	17.5	.....	16.6	16.5	16.5
13.6	12.4	12.3	.....	12.9	12.0	12.0	.....	[2]22.5	[2]21.8	[2]22.1	.....	13.4	11.8	11.8	.....	12.5	11.6	11.7
7.2	11.0	11.7	5.1	5.8	10.1	10.5	5.2	6.4	10.2	10.9	5.1	6.2	10.2	10.6	4.8	5.8	9.8	10.3
73.4	76.8	77.2	53.8	48.3	54.6	54.9	55.0	56.7	58.0	58.6	62.1	72.5	70.1	69.0	43.3	49.3	54.2	55.0
34.7	37.5	37.3	29.3	32.6	35.6	35.7	33.8	37.5	40.5	40.6	26.7	30.4	32.8	32.7	27.5	32.7	35.6	35.2
22.7	20.4	21.3	.....	18.4	17.1	16.9	.....	18.6	19.3	18.9	.....	21.3	20.2	20.1	.....	19.7	17.8	17.8
26.5	18.3	18.4	.....	21.6	15.9	15.5	.....	22.5	16.9	16.9	.....	25.5	18.6	18.4	.....	22.1	15.9	15.8
26.3	27.1	27.1	.....	38.9	37.9	37.9	.....	35.4	33.2	33.1	.....	25.0	20.0	22.0	.....	40.4	42.5	43.3
63.0	47.3	53.0	.....	71.9	51.9	58.9	.....	66.8	51.9	57.8	.....	62.5	50.0	56.3	.....	68.8	61.0	65.8

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article.	Unit.	Norfolk, Va.			Omaha, Nebr.				Peoria, Ill.		
		May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15— 1913	May 15— 1922	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
		Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
Sirloin steak	Pound	38.1	37.4	38.4	25.1	33.0	34.3	34.6	33.0	30.5	32.5
Round steak	do	31.3	31.1	32.4	22.0	30.5	30.9	31.4	32.0	29.6	31.6
Rib roast	do	30.5	30.8	31.4	18.1	24.6	25.1	25.2	24.0	23.0	24.2
Chuck roast	do	18.5	18.7	19.6	15.6	18.8	19.1	19.3	20.2	19.0	19.4
Plate beef	do	13.3	13.6	14.4	10.4	10.5	10.4	10.4	12.5	12.8	12.6
Pork chops	do	31.8	28.4	29.3	19.0	31.8	25.8	27.7	31.2	26.3	28.1
Bacon, sliced	do	35.1	36.0	35.4	28.0	46.3	45.9	45.3	42.0	40.4	40.6
Ham, sliced	do	43.7	38.5	39.1	29.0	55.0	49.4	49.4	51.7	45.4	45.4
Lamb, leg of	do	40.6	38.5	38.4	18.8	40.0	36.3	35.8	36.5	34.4	35.0
Hens	do	37.1	37.5	37.4	19.5	31.6	31.3	31.6	34.2	31.4	31.0
Salmon, canned, red	do	29.8	29.5	29.5	.....	33.2	33.6	33.5	33.1	32.3	32.3
Milk, fresh	Quart	17.0	17.0	17.0	7.9	11.0	11.0	11.0	10.4	10.8	10.8
Milk, evaporated	15-16-oz. can	10.3	11.3	11.5	.....	10.8	12.3	12.0	11.0	12.1	12.0
Butter	Pound	47.8	57.3	53.5	35.0	41.6	54.4	48.6	41.6	53.4	48.9
Oleomargarine	do	27.0	28.3	28.3	.....	29.8	29.1	28.3	27.4	29.3	29.3
Nut margarine	do	27.5	27.2	27.2	.....	27.9	27.8	28.1	27.0	27.2	27.3
Cheese	do	26.8	32.3	31.0	22.5	29.9	36.0	34.3	30.2	37.5	36.1
Lard	do	16.7	16.5	16.1	17.8	19.6	18.9	19.0	16.6	17.2	17.0
Vegetable lard substitute	do	21.3	17.2	17.4	.....	24.3	22.9	22.5	22.7	24.2	25.3
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	32.9	31.3	35.1	22.3	28.6	29.9	30.2	28.5	28.4	29.0
Bread	Pound	7.9	7.9	7.9	5.2	9.8	9.8	9.8	8.9	8.0	8.0
Flour	do	5.2	4.8	4.8	2.8	4.7	4.3	4.3	5.3	4.7	4.6
Corn meal	do	3.2	3.5	3.7	2.3	3.5	3.5	3.6	3.5	3.7	3.7
Rolled oats	do	7.9	8.1	7.7	.....	10.1	9.9	9.8	8.8	9.2	9.1
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	9.4	9.6	9.2	.....	10.6	10.2	10.0	10.0	10.1	10.1
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	24.8	23.9	23.9	.....	26.1	23.9	23.9	27.3	26.1	25.7
Macaroni	Pound	19.8	19.8	19.4	.....	20.4	20.7	20.5	20.0	19.5	19.5
Rice	do	9.8	9.6	9.7	8.5	9.0	8.6	8.9	10.0	9.4	9.5
Beans, navy	do	9.8	10.8	10.8	.....	10.2	12.2	12.2	10.0	12.5	12.0
Potatoes	do	3.6	2.6	2.7	1.3	2.9	1.8	1.9	2.7	2.0	2.0
Onions	do	10.2	7.0	7.9	.....	9.8	6.3	8.9	10.9	7.6	9.6
Cabbage	do	4.1	7.5	4.9	.....	5.5	9.1	9.1	7.0	9.8	9.5
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	10.3	10.3	10.0	.....	14.9	15.3	15.3	13.1	13.3	13.4
Corn, canned	do	14.5	15.3	15.0	.....	15.7	15.9	15.7	14.5	14.6	14.6
Peas, canned	do	19.7	18.3	18.6	.....	16.6	16.9	17.2	16.8	17.1	17.1
Tomatoes, canned	do	12.9	11.9	11.5	.....	14.7	13.9	13.9	15.3	14.2	14.2
Sugar, granulated	Pound	6.4	9.9	10.4	5.7	7.0	10.8	11.6	7.2	11.4	11.6
Tea	do	73.8	78.3	78.8	56.0	70.6	74.2	74.2	61.7	61.4	61.6
Coffee	do	36.8	37.6	36.5	30.0	38.5	41.2	41.2	34.3	37.7	37.7
Prunes	do	19.5	18.7	18.2	.....	20.8	20.4	20.0	22.4	21.4	21.2
Raisins	do	23.6	17.5	17.6	.....	27.4	19.9	20.4	26.5	19.6	19.6
Bananas	Dozen	34.1	34.6	33.5	.....	[1] 10.0	[1] 12.3	[1] 12.0	[1] 10.5	[1] 10.8	[1] 10.8
Oranges	do	61.2	46.8	52.0	.....	56.1	50.3	55.5	61.1	52.2	47.9

[1] The steak for which prices are here quoted is called "sirloin" in this city, but in most of the other cities included in this report it would be known as "porterhouse" steak.

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Philadelphia, Pa.				Pittsburgh, Pa.				Portland, Me.			Portland, Oreg.				Providence, R. I.			
May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923	May 15, 1923	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
1913	1922			1913	1922						1913	1922			1913	1922		
Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
[1]30.0	[1]46.7	[1]47.1	[1]49.0	27.0	40.4	42.2	42.7	[1]55.0	[1]56.1	[1]56.9	23.5	29.6	28.4	28.8	[1]39.6	[1]61.9	[1]64.7	[1]65.0
25.6	37.5	36.9	38.1	23.3	33.0	35.1	34.9	43.4	43.9	44.5	21.2	26.4	24.7	25.0	30.6	44.5	46.5	46.2
22.3	31.2	31.4	32.7	21.8	30.1	30.4	31.3	27.9	27.8	28.3	19.3	25.3	23.6	24.3	23.8	34.1	35.0	35.1
17.6	19.4	18.8	18.9	16.5	20.0	21.0	21.5	18.6	18.2	18.7	16.9	18.2	17.0	17.5	19.0	24.4	25.6	25.8
11.8	10.2	9.8	9.5	11.9	10.6	11.1	10.7	13.6	13.3	13.7	14.0	13.6	12.2	12.8	.....	16.3	15.8	16.1
20.8	36.7	30.0	33.1	22.0	33.7	30.4	31.3	37.3	29.2	30.4	21.1	31.0	30.1	29.9	21.8	39.6	30.7	33.6
25.6	37.7	36.2	36.2	28.8	40.5	40.1	40.3	36.9	37.6	37.4	30.0	45.6	43.9	45.2	22.4	35.7	36.4	36.6
30.8	57.7	50.7	52.0	29.4	56.1	53.3	53.0	57.0	46.6	46.1	30.0	49.7	47.2	47.4	31.0	57.3	53.1	53.4
21.4	42.3	38.3	38.9	21.2	41.6	38.5	39.3	39.9	35.5	36.3	19.1	34.6	34.1	33.8	20.3	44.9	40.5	41.8
23.0	42.0	38.8	39.7	27.3	42.7	41.1	40.9	45.0	41.1	41.6	22.0	36.7	33.6	32.8	24.4	43.7	41.8	41.4
.....	28.2	26.6	26.6	.....	29.4	29.3	29.2	28.7	27.8	28.0	.....	41.8	36.8	35.0	.....	32.2	31.3	31.2
8.0	11.0	12.0	13.0	8.6	12.0	14.0	14.0	13.0	13.5	13.5	9.3	11.8	12.6	12.6	9.0	13.0	14.0	14.0
.....	11.0	12.4	12.3	.....	10.2	12.1	11.9	12.1	13.4	13.4	.....	11.6	12.0	12.0	.....	11.6	12.7	12.5
40.3	51.0	61.2	57.6	37.2	45.2	58.7	53.0	49.4	63.0	57.5	35.5	42.9	51.7	48.8	36.6	46.2	58.5	54.3
.....	28.3	29.5	29.5	.....	24.9	28.3	28.1	30.8	30.8	30.9	.....	29.5	28.8	29.3	.....	30.0	30.9	30.3
.....	26.5	27.8	28.2	.....	25.3	26.8	26.8	27.8	27.7	27.5	.....	27.9	28.7	27.0	.....	27.6	28.3	27.1
25.0	33.9	38.6	38.3	24.5	30.9	37.8	37.0	33.7	39.3	38.5	20.5	33.3	34.6	34.5	21.3	31.8	36.8	36.2
15.3	15.5	16.2	16.1	15.5	15.0	15.7	15.5	17.2	18.1	17.6	18.2	19.8	19.9	19.7	15.2	16.5	17.0	16.6
.....	20.5	22.7	22.6	.....	20.6	23.3	23.1	22.5	22.5	22.9	.....	25.0	25.0	24.8	.....	22.5	23.1	23.1
26.1	35.4	34.8	36.7	24.1	33.1	34.8	36.7	39.0	41.1	41.2	25.0	26.4	27.9	30.9	30.5	42.5	42.7	42.4
4.3	8.7	8.4	8.4	5.4	8.1	8.5	8.5	9.1	9.3	9.3	5.6	9.4	9.4	9.4	5.9	8.9	8.8	8.8
3.1	5.3	4.7	4.7	3.1	5.3	4.6	4.7	5.5	4.8	4.9	2.9	4.8	4.7	4.7	3.4	5.9	5.2	5.3
2.7	3.6	3.7	3.6	2.7	4.1	4.0	4.0	3.9	4.5	4.4	3.3	3.4	3.6	3.6	2.9	3.8	4.1	4.1
.....	7.8	8.2	8.1	.....	9.1	8.9	9.0	7.0	7.0	6.9	.....	9.3	9.5	9.4	.....	9.4	9.5	9.5
.....	9.3	9.0	9.0	.....	9.5	9.6	9.6	9.9	9.7	9.7	.....	11.3	11.4	11.4	.....	9.8	9.9	9.8
.....	24.9	23.9	24.0	.....	25.4	25.3	25.5	26.5	24.5	24.9	.....	28.7	27.0	26.3	.....	26.4	24.2	24.5
.....	21.2	21.0	20.8	.....	21.1	21.5	21.6	24.0	23.8	23.6	.....	17.5	18.1	18.5	.....	22.5	22.0	22.2
9.8	10.2	10.5	10.5	9.2	9.5	9.6	9.4	10.4	10.7	10.7	8.6	10.3	9.1	9.2	9.3	9.6	9.5	9.4
.....	9.0	11.6	11.5	.....	9.6	11.6	11.4	9.7	11.3	11.3	.....	9.0	10.0	10.2	.....	9.9	11.2	11.2
2.3	4.0	3.2	4.0	1.6	2.7	2.4	2.5	2.0	2.9	3.0	0.5	2.0	1.3	1.3	1.7	2.4	2.9	3.2
.....	8.2	6.5	8.5	.....	9.1	6.3	9.0	9.9	6.9	7.2	.....	11.3	4.6	4.5	.....	9.3	6.6	7.5
.....	5.3	8.1	7.9	.....	5.8	8.7	8.6	6.1	5.6	8.7	.....	6.2	8.0	8.0	.....	5.9	9.4	8.8
.....	11.6	11.3	11.3	.....	12.5	12.5	12.6	15.3	16.0	15.7	.....	17.5	16.3	16.3	.....	12.5	12.4	12.6
.....	14.7	14.9	14.7	.....	14.3	14.8	14.6	16.0	16.3	16.0	.....	17.7	17.3	17.3	.....	17.4	17.2	17.6
.....	16.7	16.6	16.3	.....	15.4	16.4	16.1	20.5	20.2	19.9	.....	18.3	16.4	16.9	.....	20.1	20.1	19.7
.....	13.0	12.6	12.9	.....	13.6	12.7	12.6	[2]23.1	[2]22.9	[2]23.0	.....	[3]15.5	[3]16.4	[3]16.2	.....	14.2	13.8	13.8
4.9	5.8	9.9	10.6	5.5	6.5	10.4	11.1	6.6	10.8	11.3	6.1	7.1	10.5	11.0	5.0	6.4	10.4	10.9
54.0	59.8	58.6	58.0	58.0	76.3	75.4	74.0	57.0	58.1	58.1	55.0	62.2	64.6	64.6	48.3	60.1	61.4	62.0
25.0	30.7	32.6	32.9	30.0	36.2	37.5	37.8	38.8	41.4	41.6	35.0	36.9	37.1	37.1	30.0	39.5	41.7	41.7
.....	17.3	17.0	16.9	.....	21.2	20.8	20.6	19.4	18.5	18.1	.....	18.3	13.7	12.5	.....	20.0	19.9	19.7
.....	23.0	16.9	16.6	.....	24.8	18.2	17.8	22.5	17.2	16.7	.....	24.6	18.2	18.2	.....	22.8	17.7	17.2
.....	32.7	32.3	33.0	.....	41.8	42.8	42.9	[4]10.2	[4]11.2	[4]11.2	.....	[4]13.6	[4]15.8	[4]15.7	.....	36.4	32.5	33.8
.....	66.9	51.5	58.9	.....	62.1	53.4	57.2	69.8	51.6	62.2	.....	59.7	43.9	49.6	.....	75.1	56.5	65.6

[2] No. 3 can. [3] No. 2½ can. [4] Per pound.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL

Article.	Unit.	Richmond, Va.				Rochester, N. Y.			St. Louis, Mo.			
		May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
		1913	1922						1913	1922		
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Sirloin steak	Pound	21.8	39.2	38.2	38.1	35.9	36.6	37.5	23.3	33.0	33.6	33.6
Round steak	do	19.6	34.0	33.3	33.9	30.9	31.2	32.0	21.1	30.2	31.6	31.8
Rib roast	do	18.9	30.3	29.7	29.1	26.6	27.5	28.7	18.0	26.5	26.7	26.3
Chuck roast	do	15.3	23.3	22.3	21.6	21.4	21.9	22.0	13.7	18.9	17.7	17.8
Plate beef	do	12.4	17.2	15.7	15.3	11.6	11.7	11.8	11.0	12.8	12.7	12.0
Pork chops	do	20.8	34.4	28.2	29.7	36.7	30.4	33.2	19.5	30.5	23.7	26.7
Bacon, sliced	do	25.0	35.0	34.5	34.2	31.5	34.8	34.7	25.3	39.6	38.0	37.5
Ham, sliced	do	25.7	44.8	38.3	38.6	50.4	43.3	43.9	26.7	49.4	43.5	42.5
Lamb, leg of	do	19.7	47.9	42.0	42.9	39.2	37.6	38.2	19.0	38.8	35.4	37.3
Hens	do	21.0	36.6	37.8	37.2	42.1	41.3	41.2	18.5	33.7	32.5	32.2
Salmon, canned, red	do	.....	33.5	30.0	30.0	29.9	29.2	29.1	.....	32.8	31.5	31.8
Milk, fresh	Quart	10.0	13.0	14.0	14.0	11.0	13.0	12.0	8.0	10.0	13.0	13.0
Milk, evaporated	15–16-oz. can	.....	12.2	13.2	13.5	11.3	12.1	12.0	.....	9.8	11.2	11.4
Butter	Pound	39.0	52.9	64.6	58.3	45.6	58.8	51.2	33.3	45.2	57.9	51.8
Oleomargarine	do	.....	30.1	29.6	30.2	28.5	29.8	30.2	.....	26.2	26.9	26.9
Nut margarine	do	.....	27.9	27.9	28.9	26.5	27.1	27.7	.....	25.2	24.6	24.5
Cheese	do	22.3	31.0	36.3	35.9	32.4	36.6	36.4	19.2	26.7	34.0	32.7
Lard	do	15.0	17.7	17.8	17.6	16.7	17.2	17.1	13.7	13.1	14.2	13.1
Vegetable lard substitute	do	.....	21.7	23.1	23.1	21.0	20.8	20.3	.....	20.8	22.4	22.4
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	24.0	33.7	31.9	34.2	34.1	35.1	36.2	20.0	29.4	31.4	31.3
Bread	Pound	5.3	9.1	9.2	9.2	8.1	8.0	8.0	5.5	9.4	8.9	8.9
Flour	do	3.3	5.4	4.9	4.9	5.3	4.9	4.9	3.0	4.8	4.2	4.2
Corn meal	do	2.0	4.1	4.2	4.3	4.8	4.7	4.7	2.1	2.9	3.3	3.3
Rolled oats	do	.....	10.1	9.3	9.4	7.0	8.7	8.4	.....	8.0	8.0	8.1
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	.....	10.0	9.6	9.6	9.8	9.7	9.6	.....	9.3	9.1	9.1
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	.....	27.1	25.1	24.1	25.0	23.9	23.8	.....	24.9	23.5	23.4
Macaroni	Pound	.....	21.7	21.8	21.8	19.0	18.9	18.4	.....	20.8	19.7	19.6
Rice	do	9.8	11.8	11.1	11.0	9.5	9.5	9.4	8.3	8.9	8.7	8.6
Beans, navy	do	.....	10.1	12.3	12.3	9.5	11.1	11.2	.....	9.6	11.3	11.3
Potatoes	do	1.7	4.1	2.9	3.0	2.3	2.2	2.4	1.3	3.2	2.5	2.7
Onions	do	.....	11.7	6.2	8.0	10.3	6.1	7.9	.....	7.8	6.8	7.8
Cabbage	do	.....	5.7	9.3	8.2	6.1	7.6	8.6	.....	4.9	8.1	7.6
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	.....	11.9	11.8	11.8	11.3	11.4	11.2	.....	11.0	11.3	11.3
Corn, canned	do	.....	15.5	15.8	15.3	15.3	16.6	16.3	.....	14.9	15.0	15.0
Peas, canned	do	.....	19.6	19.2	19.5	18.8	19.7	19.3	.....	16.6	16.7	16.6
Tomatoes, canned	do	.....	12.8	12.2	12.3	13.4	12.9	12.4	.....	13.9	11.8	11.8
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.0	6.7	10.7	11.1	6.3	10.1	10.6	5.2	6.5	10.4	11.0
Tea	do	56.0	79.1	79.5	81.2	60.3	63.5	62.7	55.0	68.1	67.0	66.8
Coffee	do	26.8	36.0	38.5	38.9	32.9	36.3	35.3	24.3	34.5	36.0	36.0
Prunes	do	.....	22.1	22.8	22.1	19.7	19.9	19.8	.....	20.9	20.8	20.8
Raisins	do	.....	23.6	18.3	18.1	24.7	16.9	16.6	.....	24.9	17.2	17.3
Bananas	Dozen	.....	37.1	39.2	37.7	42.3	43.2	42.7	.....	31.7	29.0	31.0
Oranges	do	.....	64.2	48.5	53.1	57.5	49.3	55.0	.....	56.8	48.8	51.4

[1] No. 2½ can.

ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

St. Paul, Minn.			Salt Lake City, Utah.				San Francisco, Calif.				Savannah Ga.			Scranton, Pa.			
May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1922.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
			1913	1922			1913	1922						1913	1922		
Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
34.8	33.4	34.6	22.5	28.5	26.0	27.1	20.3	30.9	29.2	29.4	30.9	32.2	32.3	24.3	47.3	46.9	47.1
28.8	26.6	27.7	20.0	24.8	23.2	24.4	19.0	28.0	26.7	26.7	27.1	27.7	27.5	21.0	37.3	36.9	37.5
27.3	26.7	27.6	19.6	21.7	20.8	21.1	20.7	28.5	28.2	28.3	25.0	25.2	25.4	22.3	34.9	34.7	34.7
20.9	19.7	19.9	15.7	17.4	16.4	16.5	14.6	19.1	17.5	17.5	18.0	16.8	17.3	17.0	24.7	24.1	24.3
10.7	10.8	10.4	11.7	12.6	11.8	11.9	13.3	14.4	13.2	13.2	15.4	13.9	14.4	12.1	10.9	11.0	10.7
33.8	25.3	27.5	23.1	32.3	28.0	28.1	24.0	38.7	33.4	33.8	31.1	26.5	25.8	20.5	37.5	31.3	32.0
41.1	38.5	39.7	30.8	39.7	38.7	38.3	32.8	52.5	49.4	49.3	35.5	33.6	32.8	27.3	43.1	42.9	42.7
50.6	43.4	43.8	29.3	49.7	42.7	42.7	30.0	56.2	51.2	50.3	41.8	36.4	35.5	29.3	57.3	52.3	53.3
37.7	33.3	34.0	19.6	33.9	32.6	33.6	16.7	34.7	32.8	32.2	40.8	37.5	37.5	21.7	46.8	42.3	42.7
32.9	30.3	31.7	24.3	35.8	32.2	31.7	25.2	40.5	40.4	40.5	33.1	31.9	31.9	23.7	46.5	42.8	42.4
36.8	34.8	34.5	.....	35.0	33.9	33.7	.....	27.9	28.2	28.1	36.6	34.3	34.2	.....	37.6	35.5	35.4
10.0	11.0	11.0	8.7	9.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	13.0	13.0	13.0	18.0	18.0	18.0	8.6	12.0	13.0	13.0
11.6	12.1	12.1	.....	10.7	11.2	11.2	.....	10.1	10.9	11.0	10.2	12.0	11.7	.....	11.3	12.4	12.3
40.0	50.4	46.1	35.6	40.7	53.1	49.1	33.6	45.1	54.2	53.1	45.9	59.4	55.1	36.6	44.8	57.3	53.0
26.8	28.0	27.8	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	26.7	28.5	27.8	30.9	33.1	32.9	.....	25.8	31.0	29.5
26.2	27.0	27.1	.....	28.9	27.7	27.7	.....	27.2	28.3	28.3	27.5	29.9	30.9	.....	26.5	24.5	24.5
30.0	36.0	34.5	23.3	26.6	31.1	29.8	20.0	33.8	37.1	35.8	27.9	34.3	33.9	18.3	30.6	35.6	34.7
16.8	17.7	17.7	19.2	19.0	19.9	19.8	18.3	19.3	19.2	19.3	17.8	17.9	17.3	15.6	17.7	17.8	17.8
24.3	24.0	24.1	.....	25.1	26.7	26.7	.....	24.0	25.5	25.7	20.1	18.2	19.2	.....	22.0	22.3	22.8
29.5	30.3	31.0	23.8	28.1	27.1	26.9	24.5	30.5	33.0	34.6	33.1	35.7	35.0	25.0	34.5	36.1	36.8
9.3	9.4	9.4	5.9	9.4	9.7	9.5	5.9	8.5	9.0	9.0	8.7	8.7	8.7	5.6	9.4	8.6	8.6
5.5	4.8	4.8	2.6	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.3	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.7	5.6	5.6	3.5	5.8	5.3	5.4
3.5	3.5	3.6	3.3	3.6	3.6	3.6	3.4	4.6	4.8	4.7	2.6	2.9	2.9	.....	6.1	5.8	5.8
8.7	9.3	9.9	.....	9.7	9.3	9.3	.....	9.6	9.4	9.3	8.6	8.4	8.5	.....	9.9	9.7	9.7
10.0	10.0	10.0	.....	12.6	11.0	11.0	.....	10.5	10.5	10.5	8.9	9.3	9.1	.....	10.2	10.1	10.1
26.2	25.0	25.0	.....	26.3	25.3	25.3	.....	24.9	23.6	23.9	25.5	22.8	23.3	.....	26.9	26.4	26.3
18.5	18.6	18.2	.....	21.3	19.6	19.3	.....	12.8	14.1	14.3	18.6	17.6	17.4	.....	23.2	23.1	23.1
9.4	9.4	9.3	8.2	8.8	9.0	9.0	8.5	8.9	9.3	9.0	8.4	8.0	8.1	8.5	9.8	9.7	9.7
9.7	12.4	11.9	.....	9.3	10.4	10.6	.....	8.3	9.7	9.8	10.4	11.8	11.9	.....	10.3	12.4	12.4
2.7	1.7	1.8	1.1	2.0	1.3	1.4	1.4	3.3	2.7	3.1	3.3	3.0	3.2	1.5	3.0	2.6	3.0
11.9	5.3	8.0	.....	11.0	3.5	3.9	.....	9.4	4.7	4.4	10.4	7.2	7.7	.....	9.4	6.0	7.8
5.8	9.4	8.5	.....	6.0	4.9	7.2	.....	.....	.....	.....	4.8	4.8	4.2	.....	6.2	9.7	8.2
14.0	14.2	14.5	.....	17.0	15.8	15.7	.....	15.0	14.7	14.7	12.3	12.6	12.3	.....	12.5	12.1	12.1
15.0	14.1	14.2	.....	14.9	13.9	14.2	.....	16.6	16.4	16.6	14.1	14.9	15.0	.....	16.9	16.7	16.6
16.3	16.4	16.4	.....	15.7	15.3	15.3	.....	18.0	17.3	17.5	17.2	17.2	17.3	.....	17.2	17.9	17.8
14.0	13.8	13.9	.....	14.1	12.9	12.9	.....	[1]13.8	[1]14.2	[1]14.2	12.4	11.3	11.1	.....	13.8	13.1	13.1
6.9	10.7	11.4	5.9	7.8	11.1	11.9	5.3	6.5	10.4	11.2	6.2	10.4	10.9	5.5	6.8	10.7	11.1
63.5	66.9	66.7	65.7	79.7	79.7	80.9	50.0	56.7	57.3	57.3	67.2	67.1	68.1	52.5	59.7	61.0	61.0
40.0	40.0	40.0	35.8	44.1	44.7	44.7	32.0	34.9	36.5	36.2	31.3	35.1	35.1	31.3	37.5	39.9	39.9
21.8	21.5	21.1	.....	19.7	18.6	18.5	.....	18.6	18.9	18.4	18.9	18.3	17.3	.....	18.5	18.3	17.9
27.0	19.2	19.3	.....	25.2	18.7	18.1	.....	22.2	16.9	16.3	22.8	17.0	16.9	.....	24.6	18.4	17.8
[2]11.3	[2]12.2	[2]12.4	.....	[2]16.1	[2]15.3	[2]15.6	.....	39.3	35.0	35.7	27.9	33.3	38.8	.....	35.3	32.6	32.6
66.9	55.3	61.9	.....	51.3	45.7	52.4	.....	60.0	45.4	49.8	69.0	46.9	55.9	.....	64.1	50.6	58.6

[2] Per pound.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN 51 CITIES ON SPECIFIED DATES—Concluded.

Article	Unit.	Seattle, Wash.				Springfield, Ill.			Washington, D. C.			
		May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15, 1922.	Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.	May 15—		Apr. 15, 1923.	May 15, 1923.
		1913	1922						1913	1922		
		Cts.	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*	*Cts.*
Sirloin steak	Pound	23.8	31.4	30.8	31.7	33.9	32.5	32.9	27.5	42.1	41.7	42.9
Round steak	do	21.5	27.8	26.5	27.5	33.2	31.4	32.2	23.6	35.3	34.9	36.7
Rib roast	do	19.6	24.7	25.1	25.5	22.7	22.5	22.7	21.9	34.2	33.0	34.3
Chuck roast	do	16.8	17.7	16.1	17.0	19.6	18.6	19.0	17.6	22.4	22.7	23.4
Plate beef	do	12.9	13.8	12.6	13.3	13.2	12.5	12.6	12.1	12.9	12.3	11.8
Pork chops	do	24.6	34.5	33.2	33.3	31.6	24.8	27.5	21.1	37.7	30.4	34.3
Bacon, sliced	do	31.7	50.7	48.0	48.6	38.3	39.3	40.0	26.5	37.4	38.0	38.1
Ham, sliced	do	30.8	53.8	50.0	50.0	51.1	43.2	43.6	28.0	57.2	54.3	55.2
Lamb, leg of	do	20.8	35.0	34.1	33.3	40.7	39.4	37.1	20.9	46.8	40.8	41.7
Hens	do	24.5	36.4	32.0	32.9	34.3	33.7	33.9	22.4	41.6	40.5	41.3
Salmon, canned, red	do	.....	30.9	31.0	30.4	34.5	32.7	33.0	.....	29.7	28.2	28.0
Milk, fresh	Quart	8.5	12.0	12.0	12.0	11.1	11.1	11.1	8.0	13.0	14.0	14.0
Milk, evaporated	15–16-oz. can	.....	10.3	11.0	10.9	11.6	12.9	12.7	.....	10.9	12.1	12.1
Butter	Pound	35.0	43.5	51.8	48.4	43.9	56.0	49.3	38.7	49.0	61.3	55.3
Oleomargarine	do	.....	27.5	28.5	29.7	28.3	28.6	28.4	.....	26.9	28.7	28.8
Nut margarine	do	.....	28.3	28.7	28.9	27.4	27.3	27.0	.....	26.7	27.4	27.3
Cheese	do	21.7	32.0	36.0	34.4	32.7	37.3	37.3	23.5	32.6	38.1	38.0
Lard	do	17.6	18.6	19.1	19.0	16.8	17.0	17.1	14.8	16.7	17.3	17.2
Vegetable lard substitute	do	.....	25.1	24.6	24.6	22.4	24.0	24.4	.....	21.7	23.3	23.4
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	25.0	30.8	31.4	31.9	29.8	29.8	30.5	23.9	35.7	32.8	35.8
Bread	Pound	5.5	9.9	9.9	9.9	9.7	9.3	9.2	5.6	8.6	8.2	8.2
Flour	do	3.0	5.2	4.7	4.7	5.6	5.1	5.0	3.7	5.6	5.1	5.1
Corn meal	do	3.0	3.7	4.0	4.1	4.2	4.4	4.3	2.4	3.6	4.0	4.0
Rolled oats	do	.....	8.5	8.7	8.2	10.2	10.6	10.2	.....	9.4	9.0	9.2
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg	.....	11.8	11.6	11.7	10.1	10.1	10.1	.....	9.9	9.4	9.4
Wheat cereal	28-oz. pkg	.....	26.9	24.6	24.8	27.4	25.6	25.4	.....	25.4	24.5	24.2
Macaroni	Pound	.....	18.8	18.3	18.2	20.2	19.4	19.4	.....	22.2	21.4	21.0
Rice	do	7.7	10.6	11.2	10.9	10.1	9.8	9.8	9.4	9.9	10.4	10.4
Beans, navy	do	.....	9.2	10.9	10.9	10.7	12.1	12.0	.....	9.7	11.9	11.9
Potatoes	do	1.0	2.3	1.8	1.9	3.0	2.4	2.0	2.1	4.2	2.8	2.9
Onions	do	.....	11.9	5.6	6.1	12.1	8.0	9.9	.....	10.7	6.6	8.8
Cabbage	do	.....	6.5	7.2	7.8	7.1	10.7	9.7	.....	5.2	9.2	7.9
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	.....	16.1	15.4	15.4	13.3	13.3	13.3	.....	11.2	11.7	11.7
Corn, canned	do	.....	17.5	17.1	16.7	14.6	14.7	15.0	.....	14.6	14.7	15.3
Peas, canned	do	.....	18.6	18.4	18.6	17.0	17.8	17.9	.....	17.0	15.8	16.2
Tomatoes, canned	do	.....	[1] 15.5	[1] 15.8	[1] 15.6	15.5	14.6	14.9	.....	12.9	12.0	11.9
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.9	7.1	11.1	11.8	7.3	11.3	12.0	4.9	6.5	10.0	10.7
Tea	do	50.0	63.8	66.6	67.0	73.0	70.6	71.1	57.5	72.2	77.2	76.8
Coffee	do	28.0	39.2	39.5	39.1	36.5	38.4	38.4	28.8	32.9	35.2	35.8
Prunes	do	.....	21.3	17.9	17.6	20.7	20.6	20.6	.....	21.5	22.9	22.0
Raisins	do	.....	24.5	18.4	18.4	24.8	19.0	19.9	.....	24.3	17.4	16.8
Bananas	Dozen	.....	[2] 15.0	16.2	[2] 15.8	[2] 9.8	[2] 10.6	[2] 10.6	.....	37.2	37.3	37.9
Oranges	do	.....	59.0	45.9	51.8	56.0	53.4	56.6	.....	68.2	53.9	59.1

[1] No. 2½ can.

[2] Per pound.

Comparison of Retail Food Costs in 51 Cities.

TABLE 6 shows for 39 cities the percentage of increase or decrease in the retail cost of food[7] in May, 1923, compared with the average cost in the year 1913, in May, 1922, and in April, 1923. For 12 other cities comparisons are given for the one-year and the one-month periods. These cities have been scheduled by the bureau at different dates since 1913. These percentage changes are based on actual retail prices secured each month from retail dealers and on the average family consumption of these articles in each city.[8]

Effort has been made by the bureau each month to have perfect reporting cities. For the month of May, 99.1 per cent of all the firms reporting in the 51 cities sent in a report promptly. The following were perfect reporting cities; that is, every merchant in the following-named 39 cities who is cooperating with the bureau sent in his report in time for his prices to be included in the city averages: Atlanta, Baltimore, Birmingham, Boston, Bridgeport, Buffalo, Butte, Charleston, Cincinnati, Denver, Fall River, Houston, Indianapolis, Little Rock, Los Angeles, Louisville, Manchester, Memphis, Milwaukee, Newark, New Haven, New Orleans, New York, Norfolk, Omaha, Peoria, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Portland, Me., Portland, Oreg., Providence, Richmond, St. Louis, St. Paul, Salt Lake City, Savannah, Scranton, Seattle, and Springfield, Ill.

The following summary shows the promptness with which the merchants responded in May:

RETAIL PRICE REPORTS RECEIVED DURING MAY.

Item.	United States.	Geographical division.				
		North Atlantic.	South Atlantic.	North Central.	South Central.	Western.
Percentage of reports received	99.1	99.5	99	99	99	99.5
Number of cities in each section from which every report was received	39	13	6	8	6	6

[7] For list of articles, see note 2, p. 51.

[8] The consumption figure used from January, 1913, to December, 1920, for each article in each city is given in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for November, 1918, pp. 94 and 95. The consumption figures which have been used for each month beginning with January, 1921, are given in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for March, 1921, p. 26.

TABLE 6.—PERCENTAGE CHANGES IN THE RETAIL COST IN MAY, 1923, COMPARED WITH THE COST IN APRIL, 1923, MAY, 1922, AND WITH THE AVERAGE COST IN THE YEAR 1913, BY CITIES.

City.	Percentage increase May, 1923, compared with year 1913.	Percentage increase May, 1923, compared with May, 1922.	Percentage increase May, 1923, compared with April, 1923.	City	Percentage increase May, 1923, compared with year 1913.	Percentage increase May, 1923, compared with May, 1922.	Percentage increase May, 1923, compared with April, 1923.
Atlanta	41	[1] 0.2	[1] 0.3	Minneapolis	44	2	1
Baltimore	49	3	1	Mobile	.....	3	[1] 1
Birmingham	48	3	0.4	Newark	41	5	[1] 1
Boston	47	6	0	New Haven	43	6	0.3
Bridgeport	.....	8	1	New Orleans	41	[1] 1	[1] 1
Buffalo	47	4	[1] 0.3	New York	49	5	[1] 1
Butte	.....	1	1	Norfolk	.....	1	1
Charleston	47	1	0.2	Omaha	41	1	0.4
Chicago	48	4	0	Peoria	.....	[1] 0.1	0.3
Cincinnati	41	0.2	0.1	Philadelphia	49	5	4
Cleveland	43	7	1	Pittsburgh	45	7	0.3
Columbus	.....	2	[1] 0.1	Portland, Me.	.....	5	0.3
Dallas	41	1	[1] 0.1	Portland, Oreg.	29	1	0.4
Denver	33	4	0.3	Providence	48	5	0.4
Detroit	49	5	1	Richmond	53	[1] 0.3	0.1
Fall River	45	4	[1] 0.3	Rochester	.....	4	[1] 1
Houston	.....	1	[1] 0.2	St. Louis	44	4	0.1
Indianapolis	40	4	0.1	St. Paul	.....	1	1
Jacksonville	36	1	[1] 0.2	Salt Lake City	22	1	0.1
Kansas City	40	3	[1] 0.4	San Francisco	38	3	1
Little Rock	39	2	0.2	Savannah	.....	2	[1] 0.3
Los Angeles	37	5	1	Scranton	49	2	0.4
Louisville	34	3	1	Seattle	36	1	0.3
Manchester	45	5	[1] 0.1	Springfield, Ill.	.....	[1] 1	[1] 1
Memphis	36	1	[1] 1	Washington, D.C.	51	1	1
Milwaukee	45	3	1				

[1] Decrease.

Retail Prices of Coal in the United States.[1]

THE following table shows the average retail prices of coal on May 15, 1922, and on April 15 and May 15, 1923, for the United States and for each of the cities included in the total for the United States. Prices for coal are secured from the cities from which monthly retail prices of food are received.

In addition to the prices for Pennsylvania anthracite, prices are shown for Colorado, Arkansas, and New Mexico anthracite in those cities where these coals form any considerable portion of the sales for household use.

The prices shown for bituminous coal are averages of prices of the several kinds used. The coal dealers in each city are asked to quote prices on the kinds of bituminous coal usually sold for household use.

The prices quoted are for coal delivered to consumers, but do not include charges for storing the coal in cellar or coal bin where an extra handling is necessary.

[a] Prices of coal were formerly secured semiannually and published in the March and September issues of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW. Since June, 1920, these prices have been secured and published monthly.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL, PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON MAY 15, 1922, AND ON APRIL 15 AND MAY 15, 1923.

City, and kind of coal.	1922	1923	
	May 15.	April 15.	May 15.
United States:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	$14.848	$15.071	$14.964
Chestnut	14.905	15.065	14.958
Bituminous	9.501	10.455	10.080
Atlanta, Ga.:			
Bituminous	7.058	8.346	8.365
Baltimore, Md.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	[1] 15.000	[1] 15.750	[1] 15.750
Chestnut	[1] 14.750	[1] 15.750	[1] 15.750
Bituminous	7.750	9.000	8.800
Birmingham, Ala.:			
Bituminous	5.802	7.454	7.407
Boston, Mass.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	15.000	15.000	15.000
Chestnut	15.000	15.000	15.000
Bridgeport, Conn.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	13.000	15.000	15.000
Chestnut	13.000	15.000	15.000
Buffalo, N. Y.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	12.813	13.238	13.175
Chestnut	12.813	13.238	13.175
Butte, Mont.:			
Bituminous	11.458	10.904	11.132
Charleston, S. C.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	[1] 17.000	[1] 17.250	[1] 17.000
Chestnut	[1] 17.100	[1] 17.100	[1] 17.100
Bituminous	12.000	12.000	12.000
Chicago, Ill.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	15.390	15.725	15.875
Chestnut	15.360	15.688	15.750
Bituminous	8.683	8.844	8.813
Cincinnati, Ohio:			
Bituminous	6.577	8.654	8.577
Cleveland, Ohio:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	14.375	14.583	14.583
Chestnut	14.438	14.583	14.583
Bituminous	7.956	9.994	9.681
Columbus, Ohio:			
Bituminous	6.645	8.632	8.039
Dallas, Tex.:			
Arkansas anthracite—			
Egg	18.125	16.250	15.750
Bituminous	15.154	14.458	13.542
Denver, Colo.:			
Colorado anthracite—			
Stove, 1 and 2 mixed	15.917	16.000	16.333
Furnace, 3 and 5 mixed	15.917	16.000	16.333
Bituminous	10.243	9.777	9.777
Detroit, Mich.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	14.563	15.750	15.625
Chestnut	14.563	15.750	15.625
Bituminous	8.688	11.321	10.821
Fall River, Mass.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	15.250	15.500	15.500
Chestnut	15.000	15.417	15.417
Houston, Tex.:			
Bituminous	10.667	10.667	12.000
Indianapolis, Ind.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	15.625	15.875	15.875
Chestnut	15.667	15.875	15.875
Bituminous	6.989	8.370	8.185

[1] Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL, PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON MAY 15, 1922, AND ON APRIL 15 AND MAY 15, 1923—Continued.

City, and kind of coal.	1922	1923	
	May 15.	April 15.	May 15.
Jacksonville, Fla.:			
Bituminous	$13.000	$14.000	$14.000
Kansas City, Mo.:			
Arkansas anthracite—			
Furnace	16.286	14.857	15.500
Stove, or No. 4	17.063	16.250	16.625
Bituminous	8.766	8.603	8.647
Little Rock, Ark.:			
Arkansas anthracite—			
Egg	15.000	15.000	15.000
Bituminous	12.067	11.000	11.000
Los Angeles, Calif.:			
Bituminous	18.000	16.500	15.500
Louisville, Ky.:			
Bituminous	6.620	8.677	8.635
Manchester, N. H.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	16.000	17.000	17.167
Chestnut	16.000	17.000	17.167
Memphis, Tenn.:			
Bituminous	7.786	9.375	7.643
Milwaukee, Wis.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	15.980	16.430	16.030
Chestnut	15.950	16.410	16.010
Bituminous	9.759	12.194	10.611
Minneapolis, Minn.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	17.750	17.900	17.500
Chestnut	17.750	17.930	17.380
Bituminous	11.950	13.288	12.825
Mobile, Ala.:			
Bituminous	8.719	10.286	10.286
Newark, N. J.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	12.750	12.750	12.750
Chestnut	12.750	12.750	12.750
New Haven, Conn.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	14.000	14.750	14.583
Chestnut	14.000	14.750	14.583
New Orleans, La.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	16.750	21.750	21.250
Chestnut	16.833	21.750	21.250
Bituminous	8.786	11.250	9.708
New York, N. Y.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	13.142	13.667	13.667
Chestnut	13.142	13.667	13.667
Norfolk, Va.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	14.000	17.000	15.500
Chestnut	14.000	17.000	15.500
Bituminous	9.429	13.238	12.048
Omaha, Nebr.:			
Bituminous	11.857	11.226	10.702
Peoria, Ill.:			
Bituminous	6.625	6.833	6.792
Philadelphia, Pa.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	[1] 14.094	[1] 14.571	[1] 14.536
Chestnut	[1] 14.094	[1] 14.571	[1] 14.536
Pittsburgh, Pa.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	[1] 15.750	[1] 16.750	[1] 16.750
Chestnut	[1] 15.667	[1] 16.875	[1] 16.833
Bituminous	6.750	8.464	7.607
Portland, Me.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	15.843	15.843	15.843
Chestnut	15.843	15.843	15.843
Portland, Oreg.:			
Bituminous	13.065	14.413	13.630

[1] Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL, PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON MAY 15, 1922, AND ON APRIL 15 AND MAY 15, 1923—Concluded.

City, and kind of coal.	1922	1923	
	May 15.	April 15.	May 15.
Providence, R. I.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	[2] $15.000	[2] $15.000	[2] $15.000
Chestnut	[2] 15.000	[2] 15.000	[2] 15.000
Richmond, Va.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	14.250	15.500	15.625
Chestnut	14.250	15.500	15.625
Bituminous	8.692	11.837	11.779
Rochester, N. Y.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	13.450	13.450	13.450
Chestnut	13.450	13.450	13.450
St. Louis, Mo.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	16.188	16.000	16.000
Chestnut	16.375	16.188	16.250
Bituminous	6.961	6.803	6.764
St. Paul, Minn.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	17.750	17.667	17.517
Chestnut	17.750	17.642	17.442
Bituminous	12.384	13.488	13.154
Salt Lake City, Utah:			
Colorado anthracite—			
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed	19.125	15.000	18.333
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed	20.000	15.000	18.333
Bituminous	8.580	8.547	8.375
San Francisco, Calif.:			
New Mexico anthracite—			
Cerillos egg	27.250	26.750	25.500
Colorado anthracite—			
Egg	26.250	24.250	24.000
Bituminous	18.038	17.900	16.000
Savannah, Ga.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	[3] 16.100	[3] 17.000	[3] 17.050
Chestnut	[3] 16.100	[3] 17.000	[3] 17.050
Bituminous	[3] 10.100	[3] 13.167	[3] 11.200
Scranton, Pa.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	9.700	9.817	9.817
Chestnut	9.700	9.817	9.817
Seattle, Wash.:			
Bituminous	[4] 10.080	[4] 10.264	[4] 10.257
Springfield, Ill.:			
Bituminous	4.675	4.975	4.975
Washington, D. C.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	[1] 14.679	[1] 15.393	[1] 15.393
Chestnut	[1] 14.607	[1] 15.321	[1] 15.321
Bituminous	[1] 8.871	[1] 10.464	[1] 10.286

[1] Per ton of 2,240 pounds.
[2] Fifty cents per ton additional is charged for "binning." Most customers require binning or basketing the coal into the cellar.
[3] All coal sold in Savannah is weighed by the city. A charge of 10 cents per ton or half ton is made. This additional charge has been included in the above prices.
[4] Prices in zone A. The cartage charges in zone A were as follows: May, 1922, $1.75; April, 1923, $1.25; and May, 1923, $1.25. These charges have been included in the averages.

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in May, 1923.

THE general level of wholesale prices was appreciably lower in May than in the month before, according to information gathered in representative markets by the United States Department of Labor through the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The bureau's weighted index number, which includes 404 commodities or price series, fell to 156 in May as compared with 159 in April, a drop of nearly 2 per cent.

Fuel and lighting materials, due to continued declines in bituminous coal, coke, crude and refined petroleum, and gasoline, were 5 per cent lower than in April. Cloths and clothing, with declines in cotton goods and raw silk, were 2 per cent lower. Prices of farm products and chemicals and drugs averaged about 1½ per cent below April prices, while smaller declines were reported in the groups of building materials, metals and metal products, and miscellaneous commodities. No change in the general price level was shown for foodstuffs and house-furnishing goods.

Of the 404 commodities or series of quotations for which comparable data for April and May were collected, increases were shown in 91 instances and decreases in 147 instances. In 166 instances no change in price was reported.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

[1913=100.]

Commodity group.	1922	1923	
	May.	April.	May.
Farm products	132	141	139
Foods	138	144	144
Cloths and clothing	175	205	201
Fuel and lighting	216	200	190
Metals and metal products	119	154	152
Building materials	160	204	202
Chemicals and drugs	122	136	134
House-furnishing goods	176	187	187
Miscellaneous	116	126	125
All commodities	148	159	156

Comparing prices in May with those of a year ago, as measured by changes in the index numbers, it is seen that the general level has risen 5½ per cent. Metals and metal products again showed the largest increase, 27¾ per cent. Building materials follow next with an increase of 26¼ per cent. Cloths and clothing have increased 14¾ per cent, chemicals and drugs 9¾ per cent, miscellaneous commodities 7¾ per cent, and house-furnishing goods 6¼ per cent in price in the year. Farm products and foods showed smaller increases compared with prices of a year ago. Fuel and lighting materials on the contrary were 12 per cent cheaper than in the corresponding month of last year.

Comparison of Retail Price Changes in the United States and Foreign Countries.

THE index numbers of retail prices published by several foreign countries have been brought together with those of this bureau in the subjoined table after having been reduced to a common base, namely, prices for July, 1914, equal 100. This base was selected instead of the average for the year 1913, which is used in other tables of index numbers compiled by the bureau, because of the fact that in some instances satisfactory information for 1913 was not available. For Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Great Britain, Norway, Sweden, and the city of Rome, Italy, the index numbers are reproduced as published in the original sources. With three exceptions all these are shown on the July, 1914, base in the source from which the information is taken. The index numbers for Belgium are computed on April, 1914, as the base period, those for Germany on the average of October, 1913, January, April, and July, 1914, while those for Rome are based on the first half of 1914. The index numbers here shown for the remaining countries have been obtained by dividing the index for each month specified in the table by the index for July, 1914, or the nearest period thereto, as published. As shown in the table, the number of articles included in the index numbers for the different countries differs widely. These results should not, therefore, be considered as closely comparable with one another. In a few instances, also, the figures here shown are not absolutely comparable from month to month over the entire period, owing to slight changes in the list of commodities included at successive dates.

INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND CERTAIN OTHER COUNTRIES.

[July, 1914=100.]

Year and month.	United States: 22 foodstuffs, to December, 1920; since that time 43 foodstuffs; 51 cities (variable). Weighted.	Australia: 46 foodstuffs; 30 towns. Weighted.	Belgium: 56 articles (variable); 59 cities. Not weighted.	Canada: 29 foodstuffs; 60 cities. Weighted.	Denmark: Family food budget; 5 persons. Weighted.	France: Family budget, 13 articles.		Germany: Family food budget; 5 persons. Weighted.
						Cities over 10,000 population (except Paris). Weighted.	Paris only. Weighted.	
July, 1914	100	100	[1] 100	100	100	100	100	[2] 100
July, 1915	98	131	.....	105	128	[2] 123	120	.....
July, 1916	109	130	.....	114	146	[2] 141	129	.....
July, 1917	143	126	.....	157	166	[2] 184	183	.....
July, 1918	164	131	.....	175	187	[2] 244	206	.....
July, 1919	186	147	.....	186	212	[2] 289	261	.....
1920.								
July	215	194	453	227	253	[2] 388	373	1,267
August	203	194	463	221	.....	.....	373	1,170
September	199	197	471	215	.....	.....	407	1,166
October	194	192	477	213	.....	[2] 450	420	1,269
November	189	186	476	206	.....	.....	426	1,343
December	175	184	468	200	.....	.....	424	1,427
1921.								
January	169	186	450	195	276	[2] 429	410	1,423
February	155	184	434	190	.....	.....	382	1,362
March	153	181	411	178	.....	.....	359	1,352
April	149	173	399	171	.....	[2] 363	328	1,334
May	142	168	389	165	.....	.....	317	1,320
June	141	165	384	150	.....	.....	312	1,370
July	145	161	379	148	236	[2] 350	306	1,491
August	152	158	384	154	.....	.....	317	1,589
September	150	154	386	159	.....	.....	329	1,614
October	150	149	391	155	.....	[2] 348	331	1,757
November	149	146	394	149	.....	.....	326	2,189
December	147	143	393	148	.....	.....	323	2,357
1922.								
January	139	142	387	149	197	[2] 323	319	2,463
February	139	140	380	143	.....	.....	307	3,020
March	136	141	371	142	.....	.....	294	3,602
April	136	143	367	138	.....	[2] 315	304	4,356
May	136	146	365	138	.....	.....	318	4,680
June	138	146	366	137	.....	.....	307	5,119
July	139	148	366	138	184	[2] 312	297	6,836
August	136	149	366	141	.....	.....	289	9,746
September	137	149	371	139	.....	.....	291	15,417
October	140	146	376	138	.....	[2] 314	290	26,623
November	142	145	384	139	.....	.....	297	54,982
December	144	146	384	140	.....	.....	305	80,762
1923.								
January	141	145	383	142	180	[2] 331	309	136,606
February	139	144	397	142	.....	.....	316	318,300
March	139	145	408	145	.....	.....	321	331,500

[1] April, 1914.
[2] Average for October, 1913, January, April, and July, 1914.
[3] Quarter beginningmonth specified.

INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND CERTAIN OTHER COUNTRIES—Concluded.

Year and month.	Great Britain: 21 foodstuffs; 600 towns. Weighted.	Italy: Family food budget; 5 persons; Rome. Weighted.	Netherlands: 27 foodstuffs; Amsterdam. Weighted.	New Zealand: 59 foodstuffs; 25 towns. Weighted.	Norway: Family food budget. Weighted.	South Africa: 18 foodstuffs 9 towns. Weighted.	Sweden: 21 articles; 44 towns. Weighted.	Switzerland: 9 groups of foodstuffs. Not weighted.
July, 1914	100	[4] 100	[5] 100	100	100	[6] 100	100	[7] 100
July, 1915	132½	95	.....	112	.....	[6] 107	[3] 124	[7] 119
July, 1916	161	111	.....	119	[8] 160	[6] 111	[3] 142	[7] 140
July, 1917	204	137	.....	127	.....	[6] 124	177	.....
July, 1918	210	203	.....	139	279	[6] 125	268	.....
July, 1919	209	206	210	144	289	[6] 136	310	.....
1920.								
July	258	318	217	167	319	[6] 178	297	246
August	262	322	219	171	333	.....	308	.....
September	267	324	223	173	336	.....	307	.....
October	270	341	226	177	340	.....	306	262
November	291	361	220	176	342	.....	303	.....
December	282	375	208	179	342	.....	294	.....
1921.								
January	278	367	199	178	334	[3] 166	283	243
February	263	376	200	175	308	.....	262	237
March	249	386	199	169	300	.....	253	234
April	238	432	193	169	300	[3] 151	248	231
May	232	421	189	167	292	.....	237	212
June	218	409	186	166	290	.....	234	210
July	220	402	185	164	292	[3] 136	232	214
August	226	416	184	163	297	.....	234	209
September	225	430	184	161	290	.....	228	206
October	210	452	173	156	288	[3] 128	218	200
November	200	459	159	152	281	.....	211	198
December	195	458	154	150	268	.....	202	192
1922.								
January	185	469	152	147	257	121	190	189
February	179	463	154	145	245	119	189	179
March	177	446	148	141	238	119	185	177
April	173	455	141	144	234	121	182	167
May	172	455	140	145	230	120	178	158
June	170	454	141	143	227	118	179	157
July	180	459	144	144	283	116	179	158
August	175	463	144	141	232	116	181	158
September	172	472	145	139	228	117	180	156
October	172	482	148	139	220	119	178	157
November	176	477	141	139	216	120	170	160
December	178	476	142	138	215	118	168	160
1923.								
January	175	.....	145	139	214	117	166	161
February	173	.....	146	139	214	117	165	160
March	171	.....	145	141	214	117	166	158

[3] Quarter beginning month specified.
[4] January-June.
[5] Year 1913
[6] Year.
[7] Previous month.
[8] August

Cost of Living in Foreign Countries.[1]

Index Numbers.

UP TO December, 1922, the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW kept its readers informed on changes in the cost of living in foreign countries by giving currently the most important data in short articles dealing with each country separately. Also, figures showing the trend of food prices in foreign countries have been published quarterly. In order to show the international aspect of cost of living in general rather more clearly, it was decided in December of last year to publish semiannually a general survey and tables showing the international movement. Tables of index numbers for different countries since 1914 have been compiled and were published for the first time in the December, 1922, issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW. In the following pages these tables have been brought up to the latest date for which data are available. Since food indexes have been published elsewhere in the REVIEW, they are not included here. The number of countries given in the different tables varies according to the information available. Several countries publish only an index number for food, while others omit clothing and sometimes even rent.

The very fact that the new form of presentation suggests that the index numbers are completely comparable internationally makes it all the more necessary to insist on caution in using them for such comparisons. Not only are there differences in the base periods and in the number and kind of articles included and the number of markets from which prices are taken, but there are also many differences of method, especially in the systems of weighting used. In the December, 1922, issue of the REVIEW (pp. 81–85) a short account was given for each country of the scope of the index numbers and the method of computation used.

[1] Compiled from official and unofficial foreign publications named as sources in the December, 1922, issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW (pp. 81–85).

TABLE 1.—INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES, 1914 TO 1923.

[A=Food; B=Heat and light; C=Clothing; D=Rent; E=Certain miscellaneous articles.]

Year and month.	Bulgaria (12 localities), A, B.	Australia (30 localities), A, B, D.	New Zealand (25 localities), A, B, D.	Canada (60 localities), A, B, C, D, E.	United States (32 cities), A, B, C, D, E.	Germany. Official (71 localities), A, B, C, D.	Germany. Unofficial (Berlin), A, B, C, D, E.[1]	Poland (Warsaw), A, B, C, D, E.	Belgium (59–61 localities), A, B, C, E.	France (Paris), A, B, C, E.	Italy, A, B, C, D, E. Rome	Italy, A, B, C, D, E. Milan.	Greece (101 localities), A, B, E.
	Average, 1901–1910 =100	1911 =100	Average, 1909–1913 =100	1913=100		Average, Oct., 1913, Jan., Apr., and June, 1914 =100	Average, Aug., 1913, to July, 1914 =100	Jan., 1914 =100	Apr., 1914 =100	First half, 1914=100			1914 =100
1914	.....	111	.....	[2] 102	[2] 103	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	100
1915	.....	126	.....	[2] 104	[2] 105	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	[2] 109	.....	121
1916	.....	130	.....	[2] 119	[2] 118	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	[2] 122	.....	167
1917	.....	129	.....	[2] 143	[2] 142	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	[2] 163	.....	289
1918	.....	134	.....	[2] 161	[2] 174	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	[2] 238	[3] 286	382
1919	.....	148	[3] 137	[2] 179	[2] 199	.....	.....	.....	.....	[4] 238	[3] 188	[3] 280	341
1920	.....	175	[3] 155	[2] 192	[2] 200	[3] 1065	[3] 1125	[2] 11173	453	[5] 341	[3] 313	[1] 441	359
1921	1612	167	[3] 163	[2] 161	[2] 174	[3] 1250	[3] 1125	[3] 25709	379	[5] 307	[3] 387	[3] 494	421
1922:													
January	[6] 2259		157	[7] 153	.....	2041	1903	46883	387		430	523	.....
February	[6] 2365	152	156	[7] 150	.....	2449	2177	48085	380	291	426	522	.....
March	2379		153	[7] 150	167	2897	2740	52358	371		415	503	.....
April	2455		152	[7] 147	.....	3436	3177	58627	367		420	490	.....
May	2632	156	152	[7] 147	.....	3803	3455	63914	365	302	427	492	.....
June	2379		151	[7] 147	167	4147	4149	68407	366		425	488	.....
July	2444		150	[7] 147	.....	5392	6122	78798	366		429	488	.....
August	2463	159	150	[7] 149	.....	7765	10271	90800	366	289	431	491	.....
September	2470		150	[7] 149	166	13319	16368	107700	371		437	498	.....
October	2498		149	[7] 149	.....	22066	26069	128400	376		444	504	.....
November	.....	158	149	[7] 149	.....	44610	56494	171000	384	300	439	506	.....
December	.....		148	[7] 150	170	68506	76925	231000	384		439	504	.....
1923:													
January	.....	.....	148	[7] 151	.....	112000	128952	[1] 352643	383		.....	505	.....
February	.....	.....	148	[7] 151	.....	264300	[8] 281385	[1] 571255	397	[9] 324	.....	497	.....
March	.....	.....	.....	[7] 153	169	285400	[8] 2608400	.....	408		.....	493	.....
April	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	[8] 2596300	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

[1] From International Labor Review, Geneva.
[2] December.
[3] July.
[4] First quarter.
[5] Second quarter.
[6] From Labor Gazette, London.
[7] Not including clothing or miscellaneous articles.
[8] From Finanzpolitische Korrespondenz, Berlin, May 15, 1923.
[9] From L'Information Sociale ,Paris, May 3, 1923.

TABLE 1.—INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF LIVING IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES, 1914 TO 1923—Concluded.

Year and month.	Spain (Madrid), A, B, E.[1]	South Africa (9 localities).		Austria (Vienna), A, B, C, D.[1]	Denmark (100+ localities), A, B, C, D, E.	Finland (21 localities), A, B, C, D, E.	Great Britain (620 localities), A, B, C, D, E.	India (Bombay), A, B, C, D.	Ireland, A, B, C, E.	Norway (31 localities), A, B, C, D, E.	Sweden (40 localities), A, B, C, D, E.	Netherlands.	
		A, B, D.	A, B, C, D.									The Hague, A, B, C, D, E.[1]	Amsterdam, A, B, C, D, E.
	1914 =100	1910 =100	1914 =100	July, 1914=100								Dec., 1920 =100	Mar., 1920 =100
1914	[3] 100	109	.....	.....	[3] 100	.....	[3] 100	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1915	[3] 108	113	.....	.....	[3] 116	.....	[3] 125	.....	.....	[10] 117	.....	.....	.....
1916	[3] 115	116	.....	.....	[3] 136	.....	[3] 148	.....	.....	[10] 147	[2] 139	.....	.....
1917	[3] 121	125	.....	.....	[3] 155	.....	[3] 180	.....	.....	[11] 190	[12] 166	.....	.....
1918	[3] 146	129	.....	.....	[3] 182	.....	[3] 203	.....	.....	[10] 253	[3] 219	.....	.....
1919	[3] 168	138	.....	.....	[3] 211	.....	[3] 208	[3] 186	.....	[13] 275	[3] 257	.....	.....
1920	[3] 188	170	.....	.....	[3] 262	[3] 911	[3] 252	[3] 190	.....	[13] 302	[3] 270	.....	[13] 102
1921	[3] 182	149	.....	[13] 9800	[3] 237	[3] 1139	[3] 219	[3] 177	.....	[13] 302	[3] 236	[13] 95	[13] 97
1922:													
January	179	133	139	66900	212	1055	192	173	.....	.....	216	.....	.....
February	179	131	138	77000	.....	1102	188	165	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
March	181	132	136	77800	.....	.....	186	165	191	266	.....	93	90
April	190	134	137	87200	.....	1086	182	162	.....	.....	195	.....	.....
May	188	133	137	109300	.....	1087	181	163	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
June	183	132	135	187100	.....	1109	180	163	185	255	.....	88	87
July	179	131	.....	264500	199	1118	184	165	.....	.....	190	.....	.....
August	178	131	.....	593200	.....	1136	181	164	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
September	179	131	.....	1130600	.....	1137	179	165	.....	249	.....	80	82
October	178	132	.....	1036800	.....	1156	178	162	189	.....	190	.....	.....
November	178	133	.....	970100	.....	1150	180	160	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
December	177	132	.....	937500	.....	1139	180	161	.....	242	.....	79	83
1923:													
January	180	131	.....	946875	198	1133	178	156	190	.....	183	.....	.....
February	181	131	.....	965812	.....	1131	177	155	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
March	.....	.....	.....	1023760	.....	1129	176	154	.....	240	.....	78	81
April	.....	.....	.....	1098500	.....	.....	174	.....	.....	.....	177	.....	.....

[1] From International Labor Review, Geneva.
[2] December.
[3] July.
[10] June-July.
[11] May-July.
[12] September.
[13] June.

TABLE 2.—INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF HEAT AND LIGHT IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES, 1914 TO 1923.

Year and month.	New Zealand (4 localities).	Canada (60 localities).	United States (32 cities).	Germany. Official (71 localities).	Germany. Unofficial (Berlin).[1]	Poland (Warsaw).	France (Paris).	Italy. Rome.	Italy. Milan.	Switzerland. Official (33 localities).	Switzerland. Unofficial (23 localities).
	Average 1909–1913 = 100.	1913 = 100.		Average, Oct., 1913, Jan., Apr., and June, 1914 = 100.	Average, August, 1913, to July, 1914 = 100.	January, 1914 = 100.	First half, 1914 = 100.			June, 1914 = 100.	
1914		[2] 99	[3] 101								
1915		[2] 96	[3] 101					[4] 106 [5] 118			[6] 115
1916		[2] 96	[3] 108					[4] 150 [5] 118			[6] 129
1917		[2] 125	[3] 124					[4] 247 [5] 119			[6] 182
1918		[2] 147	[3] 148					[4] 216 [5] 110	[2] 220		[6] 302
1919	[7] 151	[2] 154	[3] 157				[8] 164	[4] 188 [5] 185	[2] 220		[6] 372
1920	[7] 185	[2] 191	[3] 195		[7] 1158	[3] 8445	[7] 296	[4] 212 [5] 112	[1] 611		[6] 387
1921	[7] 208	[2] 194	[3] 181		[7] 1316	[2] 15003	[7] 308	[4] 282 [5] 261	[2] 899	[2] 210	220
1922:											
January	201	185		2094		35868	302	[9] 282 [10] 314	553	191	218
February		183		2385		39384		[9] 282 [10] 355	530	187	215
March		181	176	2965	3263	39363		[9] 282 [10] 345	530	187	214
April	193	181		3497		40118	287	[9] 282 [10] 319	530	183	212
May		177		4411		46013		[9] 282 [10] 292	530	180	207
June		179	174	4822	5053	51100		[9] 282 [10] 292	515	177	204
July	186	179		5939		54200	291	[9] 282 [10] 266	515	177	203
August		180		7716		62700		[9] 282 [10] 266	515	176	201
September		190	184	16110	20000	84900		[9] 282 [10] 271	515	176	201
October	183	191		25170		100400	302	[9] 282 [10] 290	519	177	203
November		190		50830		170600		[9] 282 [10] 327	519	178	204
December		187	186	103890		228700		[9] 282 [10] 357	519	179	204
1923:											
January		189		161200					534	176	204
February		191		407100	403526				548	177	206
March		190	186	552900					548	177	207
April										177	207

[1] From International Labor Review, Geneva.
[2] July.
[3] December.
[4] Heat; December.
[5] Light; December.
[6] July; from International Labor Review, Geneva
[7] Second quarter.
[8] First quarter
[9] Heat.
[10] Light

TABLE 2.—INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF HEAT AND LIGHT IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES, 1914 TO 1923—Concluded.

Year and month.	Austria (Vienna).[1]	Denmark (100+ localities).	Finland (21 localities).[11]	Great Britain (26–30 localities).	India (Bombay).	Ireland.	Norway (31 localities).[12]	Sweden (40 localities).	South Africa (9 localities).[1]	Spain (Madrid).[1]	Netherlands (The Hague).[1]
	July, 1914=100.								1914=100		December, 1920=100
1914		[2] 100									
1915		[2] 130							[2] 109	[2] 110	
1916		[2] 175						[3] 168	[2] 111	[2] 118	
1917		[2] 220						[13] 240	[2] 115	[2] 119	
1918		[2] 275					471	[2] 286	[2] 128	[2] 147	
1919		[2] 292					316	[2] 326	[2] 131	[2] 172	
1920		[2] 563	[2] 1232	[2] 230			[14] 518 [15] 220	[2] 372	[2] 155	[2] 185	
1921		[2] 401	[2] 1278	[2] 260	[2] 176		[14] 518 [15] 220	[2] 264		[2] 190	[18] 83
1922:											
January		333	1263	223	172		[16] 337 [17] 277	207			
February			1254	220	172		[16] 330 [17] 276				
March	86000			220	167	221	[16] 326 [17] 250 [15] 214		176	192	82
April			1248	215	167		[16] 321 [17] 208	196			
May			1251	210	167		[16] 308 [17] 201				
June	167000		1275	205	167	211	[16] 306 [17] 201 [15] 214			190	
July		301	1276	190	167		[16] 298 [17] 199	188			
August			1275	190	167		[16] 286 [17] 192				
September	1265800		1251	190	167		[16] 281 [17] 188			185	
October			1316	185	167		[16] 275 [17] 183	183			
November			1344	188	167		[16] 275 [17] 183				
December	1350300		1355	188	167		[16] 272 [17] 184			187	
1923:											
January	1418000	277	1360	188	166	202	[16] 271 [17] 181	188		187	
February	1452700		1416	188	166		[16] 271 [17] 163			191	
March	1510100		1484	188	164		[16] 279 [17] 168				
April	1521400			185				188			

[1] From International Labor Review, Geneva.
[2] July.
[3] December.
[11] Fuel only.
[12] Figures for 1919–1921 are for June.
[13] September
[14] Coal, coke, wood, and petroleum.
[15] Gas and electricity.
[16] Coal, coke, and wood.
[17] Petroleum.
[18] June.

TABLE 3.—INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF CLOTHING IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES, 1914 TO 1923.

Year and month.	South Africa (9 localities).	Canada (60 localities).	United States (32 cities).	Germany.		France (Paris).	Italy.		Poland (Warsaw).
				Official (71 localities).	Unofficial (Berlin)[1].		Rome.	Milan.	
	1910=100.	1913=100.		Average, Oct., 1913, Jan., April, and June, 1914=100.	Average, August, 1913, to July, 1914=100.	First half, 1914=100.			January, 1914=100.
1914			[2] 101						
1915		[2] 125	[2] 105				[2] 119		
1916		[2] 143	[2] 120				[2] 162		
1917		[2] 167	[2] 149				[2] 211		
1918		[2] 198	[2] 205				[2] 261	[3] 284	
1919		[2] 234	[2] 269			[4] 296	[2] 350	[3] 221	
1920		[2] 235	[2] 259		[3] 1316	[5] 485	[3] 466	[1] 651	[3] 17092
1921	[2] 188	[2] 173	[2] 184		[3] 1077	[5] 353	[3] 495	[3] 512	[3] 42643
1922:									
January							470	563	81903
February						312	464	563	82800
March	183		176		3385		464	596	96732
April				4829			464	596	107868
May				5688		315	511	596	112824
June	179		172	6519	5982		511	621	117800
July				8016			511	621	122700
August				12571		326	505	621	145100
September	173		171	26000	25247		505	629	183400
October				38660			505	629	246000
November				74160		348	481	645	356900
December	169		172	116110			481	645	431500
1923:									
January				168200				653	
February				416400				653	
March			174	432300				653	
April									

Year and month.	Austria (Vienna).[1]	Czechoslovakia (466 localities).	Denmark (100+ localities).	Finland (21 localities).	Great Britain (97 localities).	India (Bombay).	Ireland.	Norway (31 localities).	Sweden (40 localities).	Netherlands (The Hague).[1]
	July, 1914=100.									December, 1920=100.
1914			[3] 100							
1915			[3] 110		[6] 125					
1916			[3] 160		[6] 155				[3] 160	
1917			[3] 190		[6] 200				[7] 210	
1918			[3] 260		[6] 310			312	[3] 285	
1919			[3] 310		[6] 360			[5] 388	[3] 310	
1920			[3] 355	[3] 1049	[3] 430			[6] 336	[3] 390	
1921		2007	[3] 248	[3] 1038	[3] 290	[3] 263		[6] 292	[3] 270	[6] 73
1922:										
January		2053	225	1096	250	258			240	
February		1960		1098	250	245				
March	142800	1882			245	253	195	260		69
April		1813		1102	240	252			225	
May		1791		1098	240	253				
June	271200	1736		1090	240	260	189	249		
July		1674	217	1093	240	260			210	
August		1614		1094	240	258				
September	1915900	1409		1089	235	245		242		
October		1219		1094	230	234	184		205	
November		1156		1093	230	229				
December	1582900	1107		1090	225	222		237		
1923:										
January	1482100	1061	220	1090	225	225	180		203	
February	1509200	1064		1083	225	223				
March	1509200	1047		1079	225	223		232		
April	1512800				225				199	

[1] From International Labor Review, Geneva.
[2] December.
[3] July.
[4] First quarter.
[5] Second quarter.
[6] June.
[7] September.

TABLE 4.—INDEX NUMBERS OF COST OF RENT IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES, 1914 TO 1923.

Year and month	South Africa (9 localities).	Australia (6 localities).	New Zealand (25 localities).	Canada (60 localities).	United States (32 cities).	Germany. Official (71 localities).	Germany. Unofficial (Berlin).[1]	France (Paris).	Italy. Rome.	Italy. Milan.
	1910=100.	1911=100.	1909-1913=100.	1913=100.		Average Oct., 1913, Jan., Apr., and June, 1914=100.	Average, August, 1913, to July, 1914=100.	First half, 1914=100.		
1914	103	114	105	[2] 102	[3] 100				[3] 100	
1915	100	108	102	[2] 86	[3] 102				[3] 100	
1916	99	108	100	[2] 85	[3] 102				[3] 100	
1917	100	110	[4] 95	[2] 92	[3] 100				[3] 100	
1918	[5] 108	114	[4] 98	[2] 101	[3] 109				[3] 100	[2] 100
1919	[5] 114	122	[4] 100	[2] 111	[3] 125			[6] 100	[3] 100	[2] 100
1920	[5] 120	133	[4] 110	[2] 134	[3] 151		[2] 164	[4] 100	[2] 100	[1] 108
1921	[7] 120	140	[4] 118	[2] 144	[3] 161		[2] 182	[4] 110	[2] 157	[2] 139
1922:										
January		145	130	146		236		140	157	184
February				146		240			157	184
March	124			145	161	250	200		157	184
April				145		287			157	208
May		148	130	145		300		160	157	208
June				146	161	313	255		157	208
July				146		343			157	208
August		149	134	147		403		175	157	208
September				147	161	420	291		157	208
October				147		800			157	208
November		150	134	146		1130		180	157	208
December				146	162	1650			157	208
1923:										
January				148		3800				208
February				148		5800				208
March				148	162	11300				211

Year and month	Poland (Warsaw).	Austria (Vienna).[1]	Denmark (100+ localities).	Finland (21 localities).	Great Britain (22-30 localities).	India (Bombay).	Ireland.	Norway (31 localities).	Sweden (40 localities).	Netherlands (The Hague).[1]
	Jan., 1914=100.	July, 1914=100.								Dec., 1920=100.
1914			[2] 100							
1915			[2] 100							
1916			[2] 102						[3] 108	
1917			[2] 105						[8] 112	
1918			[2] 108					111	[2] 112	
1919			[2] 113					[9] 123	[2] 120	
1920	[3] 510		[2] 130	[2] 335	118			[9] 147	[2] 130	
1921	[2] 1578		[2] 141	[2] 553	145	[2] 165		[9] 161	[2] 155	[9] 109
1922:										
January	7414		141	603	155	165			163	
February	7414			603	155	165				
March	7414	1400			155	165	127	168		116
April	7931			603	155	165			163	
May	7931			603	155	165				
June	8400	2100		754	154	165	127	168		119
July	9700		155	767	153	165			163	
August	9700			798	153	165				
September	31400	3300		810	153	165		173		120
October	31400			787	152	165	127		163	
November	38600			795	150	165				
December	38600	16600		795	150	165		173		123
1923:										
January		16600	155	804	150	165	128		163	
February		34600		804	150	165				
March		34600		804	150	165		173		123
April		34600			150	165			163	

[1] From International Labor Review, Geneva.
[2] July.
[3] December.
[4] Second quarter.
[5] August.
[6] First quarter.
[7] March.
[8] September.
[9] June.

General Survey.

COST of living has not in general varied greatly during the last quarter of 1922 and the first quarter of the present year, except in countries of depreciated currency where it follows the course of wholesale prices, which themselves vary according to the state of exchange. This general rule is very clearly illustrated in the case of France. Here the fall of the French franc has caused the cost of living, and more especially the price of bread, to rise. In Belgium, also, the cost of living has risen. The greatest rise recorded during recent months has been in Germany, where the general index number of the cost of living rose during February by 118 per cent.

The course of prices in Austria has altered since the beginning of the year; the almost uninterrupted rise which had been taking place since the war was succeeded in October last by a movement of decline which kept pace with the stabilization of the currency. But from the beginning of this year the index number has recorded successive rises of 1 per cent in January, 2 per cent in February, and 6 per cent in March, with the result that the figure for March was almost as high as it had been in October, 1922. The prices of meat, sugar, and coal are those which have chiefly affected the general index number.

The index numbers of the cost of heat and light have risen in nearly all countries during the six months ending March, 1923. The rise was chiefly due to the higher cost of coal and other fuel.

There was little change in the cost of clothing except in Germany and Poland where prices have experienced a phenomenal rise.

Rent has remained stationary in all countries except those in which restrictive rent legislation is being gradually amended in favor of the landlords, as for instance in Germany and Austria.

Reduction in Cost-of-Living Bonus of Danish Government Employees.

A CONSULAR report from Copenhagen under date of March 31, 1923, states that a law was passed providing for a total reduction of 10,770,000 kroner ($2,886,360, par) in the cost-of-living bonus of Government employees, in the course of the fiscal years 1923–24 and 1924–25. In 1922 the total amount paid in cost-of-living bonus for Government employees was about 35,000,000 kroner ($9,380,000, par).

Cost of Living of the Working Classes in Bombay (India).

SINCE April, 1921, the Labor Office at Bombay has been making an inquiry into conditions bearing upon the cost of living of the working classes in Bombay city and island. The report,[1] covering 2,473 family and 603 single men's budgets, serves as a complement to the recent report on wages in the cotton-mill industry which was reviewed in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for May, 1923 (pp. 127–130), and the results obtained will be used to test the relative importance given each article in the cost-of-living index published monthly by the Bombay Labor Office.

[1] India (Bombay). Labor Office. Report on an inquiry into working class budgets in Bombay, by G. Findlay Shirras. Bombay, 1923.

Method and Scope of Inquiry.

OWING to minute differences of race, caste, and religion of the workers, numerous inquiries were made and reduced to statistical form as far as possible. Of the 3,076 budgets collected, 90.3 per cent relate to Hindus, 6.2 per cent to Mohammedans, and 1.8 per cent to Christians. Industrially, 49.5 per cent of the budgets applied to mill workers, 14.8 per cent to municipal workers, 12.2 per cent to dockers, 8.9 per cent to railway men, 7.9 per cent to engineering workers, 3 per cent to gas and electric workers, 2.7 per cent to miscellaneous workers, and 1 per cent to postal employees.

The principal items covered by the investigation were: Size and earnings of the family, the cost and consumption of food, fuel and lighting, clothing, and miscellaneous articles, housing conditions, and the cost of house rent. The budgets were classified by income and occupation of worker. In future inquiries they will also be classified by caste of worker.

Size and Earnings of the Families Studied.

IT APPEARS from the inquiry that the size of the average family in Bombay is 4.2 persons, viz, 1.1 men, 1.1 women, 2 children under 14 years, exclusive of 0.6 dependent living away from the family. The average monthly earnings of each of the 2,473 families reported was Rs. 52–4–6, or 17s. 5d. ($4.24, par) per week. If the average earnings of the 603 single men are included, the average earnings of men reported in the total 3,076 budgets was Rs. 42–9–6 per month, or 14s. 3d. ($3.47, par) per week. The monthly earnings of about 75 of the families for which budgets were tabulated ranged from 40 to 70 rupees [2] ($12.98 to $22.71, par). In every 100 families included in this inquiry there were 154 wage earners—104 men, 42 women, and 8 children.

Family Expenditure.

THOUGH the standard of living among Indian workers naturally varies with differences in climate, custom, and caste, the average earnings quoted indicate that the standard can not be a very high one. The percentage expenditure, based on 2,473 budgets, which included the principal items of family necessaries in 1921–22 is shown in the statement which follows:

	Percentage.
Food	56.8
Fuel and lighting	7.4
Clothing	9.6
Rent	7.7
Miscellaneous	18.5
Total	100.0

When the budgets are grouped according to income class it is found that the greater the earnings the smaller the percentage spent on food. This is apparent in the following table based on 597 budgets of families consisting of a husband, wife, and two children. The per cent of the total expenditure used for fuel and lighting and house rent shows a tendency to decrease as the income increases, while the amount spent on clothing remains about the same throughout the income groups.

[2] As used in this report 15 rupees = £1 ($4.8665, par); 1 rupee = 32.44 cents.

PER CENT OF FAMILY EXPENDITURE FOR EACH ITEM OF BUDGET, BY INCOME CLASS, IN 1921-22.

[1 rupee=32.44 cents.]

Income class.	Per cent of total family expenditure.					
	Food.	Fuel and lighting.	Clothing.	House rent.	Miscellaneous.	Total.
Under 30 rupees	60.5	8.9	7.8	12.0	10.8	100.0
30 rupees and under 40 rupees	60.0	7.9	9.3	9.9	12.9	100.0
40 rupees and under 50 rupees	58.4	7.8	9.3	9.0	15.5	100.0
50 rupees and under 60 rupees	56.1	7.5	8.9	8.5	19.0	100.0
60 rupees and under 70 rupees	56.1	7.3	8.7	8.4	19.5	100.0
70 rupees and under 80 rupees	54.4	7.1	8.6	7.8	22.1	100.0
80 rupees and under 90 rupees	52.6	6.5	8.8	10.0	22.1	100.0
All incomes	57.0	7.5	9.0	8.9	17.6	100.0

Consumption of Food.

A STUDY of the consumption of food indicates that the quantity of cereals consumed by industrial workers in Bombay compares favorably with the maximum prescribed by the Bombay famine code but is below the scale prescribed for jails. The daily consumption of cereals per family of the 2,473 families studied was 1.29 pounds as compared with the 1.29 pounds standard for hard labor fixed by the Bombay famine code and 1.50 pounds standard for hard labor prescribed for Bombay jails. The staple article of food is rice, which enters into the diet of 99 per cent of families investigated. Bajri (millet) is consumed by 55.6 per cent of them, mutton by 65.8 per cent, milk by 47.7 per cent, ghee (butter clarified by boiling or heating) by 48.9 per cent, etc.

Housing.

ACCORDING to the report, housing conditions in Bombay leave much to be desired, but much is being done to improve them. The housing data relative to predominant working class rents, based on 2,473 family budgets shown in the table which follows, refer almost entirely to buildings occupied before January 1, 1916, and include those owned by landlords as well as those belonging to the Improvement Trust, the Port Trust, and the municipality:

WORKING-CLASS RENTS IN BOMBAY.

[Rupee=32.44 cents; anna=2.03 cents.]

Number of rooms per tenement.	Number of tenements to which the figures relate.	Predominant range of monthly rents.	Percentage of tenements in which the rent is—		
			Within the limits of the predominant range.	Below the limits of the predominant range.	Above the limits of the predominant range.
Family budgets (1921-22):		*Rs. as. Rs. as.*			
Single rooms	2,408	3 8 – 5 8	51.5	36.0	12.5
Double rooms	65	7 0 – 10 0	43.0	38.5	18.5
Statistics collected from municipal records (1920-21):					
Single rooms	9,703	3 8 – 5 8	57.8	21.6	20.6
Double rooms	462	7 0 – 10 0	55.2	17.5	27.3

From a study of the table it appears that for single rooms the predominant range of rents was from 3 rupees 8 annas to 5 rupees 8 annas ($1.14 to $1.78, par), while for double rooms it was from 7 rupees to 10 rupees ($2.27 to $3.24, par) per month.

About 97 per cent of the families for which family budgets were secured lived in single rooms. Considerable subletting is practiced by the industrial workers, resulting in great overcrowding. In 1921 the average number of persons per room was 4.03. Figures for infant mortality in Bombay as related to the housing conditions are interesting. The rate, during 1921, in families living in one room and under was 828.5 per 1,000 births as compared with 631.1 per 1,000 births in 1920. In families living in four or more rooms the rates during the same periods were, respectively, 133.3 and 289.5. The rate for the entire city showed a marked decrease in 1922, when it was 402 per 1,000 births.

The buildings occupied by the 2,473 families reported were of brick or concrete construction, and in the cases of 2,052 of the families were in good repair; in those of 201 moderately good; in 220 they were in bad repair. The water supply was good in 234 families, one tap being furnished each 8 tenements. In 1,423 instances one tap furnished water for more than 8 but fewer than 16 tenements. In 329 cases one tap served 24 tenements and over.

As stated before, concerted effort is being made by the Development Directorate, the Improvement Trust, and the municipality to provide additional quarters for industrial workers. The scope of the work undertaken by the directorate is shown in the following table:

BUILDING PROGRAM OF THE BOMBAY DEVELOPMENT DIRECTORATE, 1921-22 TO 1928-29.

Year.	Number of chawls.[1]	Number of tenements.
1921-22	15	1,200
1922-23	45	3,600
1923-24	75	6,000
1924-25	90	7,200
1925-26	100	8,000
1926-27	100	8,000
1927-28	100	8,000
1928-29	100	8,000
Total	625	50,000

[1] Workers' quarters.

The Improvement Trust has built 8,861 rooms in permanent chawls and proposes to build 3,900 more during the next three years. It has also provided 4,575 rooms in semipermanent chawls. The Port Trust has quarters for 5,100 of its 11,700 employees. Mill owners have thus far constructed 26 chawls and are planning the construction of 18 more.

Miscellaneous Expenses.

MISCELLANEOUS expenses include cost of cooking utensils, hair cutting, laundry, medicine, education, transportation to and from work, tobacco, liquor, pansupari (betelnut), amusements, interest on debts, etc. Only 21 per cent of the families spend any-

thing on education, the average monthly expenditure being 13 annas, 10 pies (28 cents, par). Expenditure on liquor is hard to arrive at, but the average proportion spent on drink seems to be about 4 per cent of the total expenditure of the working classes. With certain exceptions, woman workers do not drink. About 47 per cent of the families are in debt to the money lenders, the usual rate of interest amounting to about 75 per cent per annum, though a much higher rate is paid in some instances. Debts are usually incurred on account of marriages, funerals, festivals, etc., and ordinarily amount during the year to the equivalent of two and a half months' earnings.

Single Men's Budgets.

OF THE 3,076 budgets submitted those of single men numbered 603, or 19.6 per cent. These single men are generally those who work in the city and have left their families in their home village. Expenses for board in the case of the so-called single men vary from 9 to 18 rupees ($2.92 to $5.84, par) per month, according to caste, the most usual charge being 12 to 15 rupees ($3.89 to $4.87, par). Single men spend more on refreshments, liquor, and tobacco than do the married men but they also make larger remittances each month to their villages.

Prices and Cost of Living.

PRICES quoted in this study agree generally with similar data published monthly by the Labor Office. Of the 2,473 families reported, 37.2 per cent buy on a credit basis, 33.8 per cent on a cash basis, and 29 per cent on both a cash and a credit basis. Cash purchasing increases with increases in income. Single men also purchase more frequently on the cash basis as they seem to be able to command less credit than the married men

Sample Budgets.

A SEPARATE section of the report conta.ns representative family budgets for the more important occupations and additional tables show the modifications for different income groups.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.

Report of American Iron and Steel Institute Committee on the Twelve-Hour Day.

AFTER "thorough investigation and most careful consideration extending over a year," the committee on the 12-hour day appointed at the meeting of the American Iron and Steel Institute in May, 1922, made a report May 25, 1923. The report of this committee, which consisted of the presidents or vice presidents of eight of the largest steel companies, is reproduced in The Iron Age for May 31, 1923 (pp. 1546, 1547). It is emphasized, however, that these findings do not constitute a final report. No facts are adduced to support the findings of the committee, and it is of interest that these findings conflict in some respects with those of the committee on work periods in continuous industry of the Federated American Engineering Societies, reported in September, 1922.[1]

The Iron and Steel Institute committee states that "the workmen, as a rule, prefer the longer hours, because it permits larger compensation per day." In the report of the engineering committee, with regard to this point, it was stated: "Do the men want the 8-hour shift? Now, if this question really means—as I understand it—Do the men want the 8-hour shift with 8 hours' pay at the present hourly rate? then I believe there can be no question that they do not! The present daily wage of $3.60, which is given for 12 hours' work at 30 cents per hour, is as low as any on which even 'common labor' can live in America and support a family."[2]

According to the report of the iron and steel executives—

> Apparently the underlying reason for the agitation which resulted in the appointment of this committee was based on a sentiment (not created or indorsed by the workmen themselves) that the 12-hour day was an unreasonable hardship upon the employees who were connected with it; that it was physically injurious to a large percentage of the employees; and that it interfered with family associations essential to the welfare of the children; that for these reasons it was, in a sense, opposed to the public interest.
>
> Whatever will be said against the 12-hour day in the steel industry, investigation has convinced this committee that it has not of itself been an injury to the employees physically, mentally, or morally. Whether or not, in the large majority of cases, 12-hour men devote less time to their families than the employees working less hours is perhaps questionable.

The committee is of the opinion that less fatigue is involved in the 12-hour than in the 8-hour shift:

> It is asserted with confidence that there is less physical work as a total per day and less fatigue from the work of the 12-hour day in the steel industry than pertains to the large majority of the 8-hour men. This is because in the former case there are more rest periods during the 12 hours on duty.

[1] For a summary of this report see MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, November, 1922, pp. 27-36.
[2] Federated American Engineering Societies. Committee on work periods in continuous industry. The Twelve-Hour Shift in Industry. New York, 1922, p. 233. Part III, by Bradley Stoughton.

While admitting that many managers sincerely believed the 12-hour shift to be "better for the health of the men than eight hours of continuous labor," the engineering committee, in its report, pointed out that this view did not take into account the "insufficiency of the rest which the men on the night shift obtain, due to only 11 hours between shifts. These men have an opportunity to sleep only in the daytime, and often during hot weather they return to their work at 6 p. m. more tired than when they left it." [3] It was also emphasized that while these men do not work continuously for 12 hours, they are on duty and subject to call for that length of time.[4]

The executives' committee declares that if the 12-hour day were abandoned the cost of production would be increased, on an average, 15 per cent, and at least 60,000 additional employees would be needed, all of which would be reflected in increased cost to the consumer. The report of the engineering investigation acknowledged this increased cost, but pointed out that this increase might be compensated by certain advantages obtained under the three-shift system, and quotes the opinion of "an acknowledged expert and authority on open-hearth steel manufacture" to the effect that—

* * * The savings in cost of operation, quality of product, and uniformity of operation and output fully compensate for the expense of working the "continuous operation" laborers on three shifts instead of two shifts. This opinion is based on the "fifty-fifty" basis; that is, labor and profits each sharing in the cost of employing the extra number of men necessary. It is also predicated on the change being made in the right way and under the right conditions.[5]

The executives' committee states that, due to the labor shortage, it would be impossible to obtain a sufficient number of men to operate the plants on a three-shift basis. "There are not now, under a two-shift practice at the furnaces, enough men to meet the demand for iron and steel."

It is pointed out that the whole matter is affected with a public interest:

But in the consideration of this subject there are many questions of high importance not involving moral or social features. They are economic; they affect the pecuniary interests of the great public, which includes, but is not confined to, employers and employees. At present the United States and all other nations are especially interested in large production, whether on the farms, in the mines, or in the manufactories. The largest reasonable production is necessary to bring about a restoration to stability, progress, and prosperity; and large production at low cost, for sale at fair prices, the entire world is more dependent upon at the present time than ever before.

* * * * * * *

To a material extent, the question of amount paid to employees, which is a very large proportion of the cost of producing, and which must necessarily determine the selling prices, is one between the employees and the purchasing public. Investors stand between these two, and it is their responsibility and their effort to decide fairly by both interests.

The responsibility for the number of employees is partly with the American Congress, because affected by immigration. There should not be permitted too much immigration, and certainly there should be none of dangerous or injurious quality; but there ought to be enough to keep our production of foodstuffs, or metals, and of other manufactures up to the necessities of the consuming public, and sufficient to meet the demands of the national welfare, which embraces the export trade.

[3] Federated American Engineering Societies. Report of committee on work periods.
[4] Idem, p. 230.
[5] Idem, p. 251.

The committee concludes therefore that—

Under the present conditions, in view of the best interests of both employees and employers, and of the general public, the members of the committee can not at this time report in favor of the total abolition of the 12-hour day.

There was a consistent, persistent, and successful effort during the time labor was more plentiful to reduce the numbers of men employed 12 hours per day. Although the percentages fluctuated, depending upon circumstances, the percentage was gradually reduced, as stated publicly. If labor should become sufficient to permit it, the members of this committee would favor entirely abolishing the 12-hour day, provided the purchasing public would be satisfied with selling prices that justified it, and provided further that the employees would consent and that industry generally, including the farmers, would approve.

Shortly after the appearance of the report of the Iron and Steel Institute committee, the following statement was issued by the commission on the church and social service of the Federal Council of Churches, the social action department of the National Catholic Welfare Council, and the social justice commission of the Central Conference of American Rabbis, representing, it is stated, some 50,000,000 members:

The report of the committee on proposed total elimination of the 12-hour day appointed by the American Iron and Steel Institute shatters the public confidence that was inspired by the creation of the committee a year ago at the request of the President of the United States. It is a definite rejection of the proposal for the abolition of the long day. The public demand in response to which the committee was appointed is set aside as a "sentiment" which was "not created or indorsed by the workmen themselves." The testimony of competent investigators, including eminent engineering societies, is ignored, and the conclusion is put forth without supporting data that the 12-hour day "has not of itself been an injury to the employees, physically, mentally, or morally." This statement is made in face of the fact that the committee of stockholders of the United States Steel Corporation, appointed in 1912 to investigate this matter, expressed the opinion "that a 12-hour day of labor, followed continuously by any group of men for any considerable number of years means a decreasing of the efficiency and lessening of the vigor and virility of such men."

Objection to the long day because of its effect on the family life of the 12-hour worker is disposed of in the report with the complacent comment that it is questionable whether men who work shorter hours actually spend their leisure time at home. This is an unworthy and untenable argument which will be bitterly resented by the millions of home-loving workingmen in America.

The Steel Institute's committee contends that the workmen themselves prefer the long hours. Undoubtedly there are those who will voluntarily work long hours to their own hurt, but the committee's contention is chiefly significant as showing that workmen whose only choice is between abnormally long hours of labor and earnings that are insufficient to maintain a family on a level of health and decency, naturally adopt the more arduous alternative.

The plea that a shortage of labor makes impracticable the change from two to three shifts of workmen, affords but a meager defense. The shortage of labor was not the reason for the failure to abolish the long day two years ago when the public waited expectantly for such a salutary step on the part of the United States Steel Corporation. At that time there was appalling unemployment which could have been in large measure relieved in steel manufacturing districts by introducing the three-shift system in the steel industry. The task may be more difficult now than it would have been then, but a past delinquency affords no release from a present moral obligation.

The Steel Institute's committee finds that the entire cost of a change to the eight-hour day would have to be paid by the consumers of steel, disregarding the possibility of some proportionate contribution out of the earnings of the industry. Thus the safeguarding of profits becomes a consideration superior to that of the wages and hours of the workers, and the willingness of the public to pay higher prices is made a condition of the accomplishment of a fundamental reform.

The Steel Institute's committee finds that there are "questions of high importance" involved in this whole matter, which, they assert, have no moral or social features. "They are economic," say the steel manufacturers; "they affect the pecuniary interest of the great public, which includes but is not confined to employers and employees."

This divorce between the "moral" or "social" elements of a problem and its economic aspects runs counter to the teaching of religion. It exalts a misconceived "law of supply and demand" to a position of equal authority with the law of justice. It excuses inhumanities in the name of economic necessity. Furthermore, it overlooks an important series of demonstrations, within the steel industry and elsewhere, of the practicability and superior advantages of the three-shift system. These demonstrations confirm in practice what no honest mind can question in principle—that bad morals can never be good economics.

The one redeeming feature of the committee's report is the intimation that it is not final. The public has waited long for the fulfillment of a virtual promise from the industry that the 12-hour day would be abandoned. The public expects the initiative to be taken by the United States Steel Corporation. It is a task that presents admitted difficulties, but none that a powerful corporation which has accumulated an enormous surplus should find insurmountable. The forces of organized religion in America are now warranted in declaring that this morally indefensible régime of the 12-hour day must come to an end. A further report is due from the Iron and Steel Institute—a report of a very different tenor.

Average Weekly Earnings in Illinois, January to April, 1923.

THE statistics given below, showing average weekly earnings of industrial workers in Illinois at the pay-roll period nearest the 15th of each of the first four months of 1923, are taken from the April, 1923, issue of the Employment Bulletin of the Department of Labor of that State.

AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS IN ILLINOIS INDUSTRIES, FOR SPECIFIED WEEK IN JANUARY, FEBRUARY, MARCH, AND APRIL, 1923.

Industry.	Average weekly earnings at pay-roll period nearest—			
	Jan. 15, 1923.	Feb. 15, 1923.	Mar. 15, 1923.	Apr. 15, 1923.
Stone, clay, and glass products	$25.41	$24.76	$27.54	$26.58
Metals, machinery, and conveyances	26.14	27.52	26.33	27.66
Wood products	24.94	25.64	25.17	26.82
Furs and leather goods	21.76	20.55	21.99	21.66
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc	23.83	23.67	23.85	26.43
Printing and paper goods	31.76	31.15	30.70	31.39
Textiles	18.22	19.03	19.28	18.31
Clothing, millinery, and laundering	25.02	25.19	27.13	26.86
Food, beverages, and tobacco	23.38	23.01	24.36	24.84
All manufacturing industries	25.25	25.67	25.83	26.79
Trade—wholesale and retail	18.40	18.30	19.19	20.37
Public utilities	28.80	29.14	28.59	28.71
Coal mining	39.16	36.34	35.10	34.13
Building and contracting	35.84	29.62	35.18	37.02
Total	26.99	27.01	27.31	27.58

Employment and Earnings in Massachusetts, March and April, 1923.

THE following statistics furnished by the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries show the changes in volume of employment and in average weekly earnings in 588 establishments in various manufacturing industries in the State in March and April, 1923:

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND AVERAGE EARNINGS IN MASSACHUSETTS MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, WEEK INCLUDING OR ENDING NEAREST THE 15TH OF MARCH AND APRIL, 1923.

Industry.	Number of establishments.	Number of employees on pay roll.		Average weekly earnings.	
		March, 1923.	April, 1923.	March, 1923.	April, 1923.
Automobiles, including bodies and parts	6	1,551	1,615	$30.36	$27.79
Boot and shoe cut stock and findings	41	1,998	1,928	21.69	[1] 21.82
Boots and shoes	63	27,077	25,668	24.71	[2] 23.40
Boxes, paper	19	3,922	3,952	22.97	[1] 22.36
Bread and other bakery products	35	1,284	1,251	25.44	27.48
Cars and general shop construction and repairs	4	4,502	4,523	34.32	[1] 32.76
Clothing, men's	19	2,012	1,914	24.00	25.72
Clothing, women's	21	694	714	21.78	[1] 20.45
Confectionery and ice cream	27	4,149	4,044	18.75	18.92
Cotton goods	42	46,792	45,746	20.17	[1] 20.30
Cutlery and tools, not elsewhere specified	8	2,753	2,773	21.88	21.98
Dyeing and finishing textiles	4	6,136	6,166	21.14	21.75
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	14	12,406	12,304	26.94	[1] 27.95
Foundry and machine shop products	40	7,846	7,923	27.60	[1] 27.66
Furniture	15	2,346	2,379	22.75	22.65
Hosiery and knit goods	10	3,761	4,365	18.81	19.29
Jewelry	19	1,822	1,742	21.74	22.66
Leather, tanned, curried, and finished	23	5,003	4,928	25.93	24.63
Lumber, planing-mill products	7	643	645	28.82	29.11
Machine tools	12	1,411	1,452	25.86	25.41
Paper and wood pulp	22	6,216	6,166	25.60	[1] 25.85
Printing and publishing, book and job	19	1,835	1,885	30.79	[1] 30.60
Printing and publishing, newspaper	8	1,957	1,940	37.99	38.69
Rubber tires and goods	13	3,474	3,284	25.10	24.59
Silk goods	9	2,071	2,022	20.37	22.13
Textile machinery and parts	11	6,408	6,579	28.54	[1] 28.43
Tobacco	4	1,570	1,482	26.27	25.78
Woolen and worsted goods	33	18,644	18,704	22.01	[3] 21.80
All other industries	40	29,784	29,588	24.47	[1] 23.85
All industries represented	588	210,067	207,682	23.77	[4] 23.58

[1] Overtime reported in one establishment.
[2] Strike conditions reported in one establishment.
[3] Overtime reported in one establishment and strike conditions in another.
[4] Wage increases reported in 33 establishments since the March report averaged about 11 per cent and affected over 12,600 persons; one decrease averaged 9 per cent and affected 312 persons; and overtime was reported in 12 establishments during the week in April reported for.

Average Weekly Earnings of Factory Workers in New York State in April, 1923.

REPORTS from representative manufacturers in New York State to the State Department of Labor showed practically no change from March to April, 1923, in the average weekly earnings of factory workers in New York State, according to a press release of May 24, 1923, issued by the State industrial commissioner. There was, however, the usual spring increase in earnings in the cement mills and other industries making builders' supplies. Earnings also increased in the majority of the metal-working trades, in the paper mills, and in the chemical industries. Gains were also reported in 40 out of 55 industry divisions, but the seasonal decrease in the men's and women's clothing factories was large enough to limit to 8 cents the average rise in weekly earnings for all industries combined.

The gain in earnings in April was due almost wholly to increases in basic wage rates, the industries in which actual earnings rose being generally the same as those in which extensive rate advances had been made—the metal and chemical industries, cement mills, and builders' supplies. Nearly 200 of the 1,648 reporting establishments had raised wages. Taking these reports as a basis, it is estimated that about 130,000, or approximately 10 per cent, of the factory employees in the State received increases in wage rates. These increases ranged from 5 to 25 per cent, the majority being about 10 per cent.

Hours of Labor in Pea Canneries in Wisconsin.

THE season for Wisconsin pea canneries in 1922 averaged about 40 days from beginning to end, but the average number of days of operation within the season was approximately 30, according to a recent statement received from the Wisconsin Industrial Commission. Because the industry is highly seasonal and its product so perishable, the commission allows these canneries to work women and children over 17 years of age 10 hours a day and 55 hours a week without any differentiation as to day and night labor. In emergencies these workers may be employed for 12 hours a day but on not more than 10 days in the season nor for over 66 hours a week. Furthermore, there must be nine consecutive hours from the close of work on any one day to the commencement of work on the next day.

Of 117 canneries, the commission reports, only 3 worked woman employees over 12 hours a day; only 5 worked woman employees over 66 hours a week. Only 5 canneries availed themselves fully of the right to work women more than 10 hours on 10 days during the season.

The same regulations will remain in force for the 1923 season.

Wages and Value of Output per Worker in Finland.

THE annual report on industrial statistics for Finland, 1921,[1] contains the following table on total wages paid, average wages per worker, and value of output per worker in Finland in 1921:

TOTAL WAGES PAID, AVERAGE WAGES PER WORKER, AND VALUE OF OUTPUT PER WORKER IN FINLAND, 1921.

[1 markka at par=19.3 cents.]

Industry group.	Total amount paid in wages.	Average wages per worker.	Value of output per worker.
	Markka.	*Markka.*	*Markka.*
Mining	872.8	5,489	7,428
Smelting and metal refining	31,456,000	9,091	54,006
Machine shops	206,162,300	11,673	34,556
Fine machinery	1,756,400	13,206	25,732
Stone, clay, glass, coal, and peat	57,330,000	7,612	27,024
Manufacture of chemical preparations	16,331,000	8,101	50,734
Tar, oil, rubber, etc	10,746,300	9,535	116,498
Leather and hair	51,887,000	9,904	77,647
Textiles	130,905,700	9,682	45,839
Paper	135,903,400	8,656	80,950
Wood	327,493,800	9,336	37,936
Food	74,068,800	9,579	150,716
Light, power, etc	26,957,500	11,408	71,403
Graphite	55,313,200	12,945	32,677
Other industries	2,007,500	7,935	25,215
Total or average	1,129,191,700	9,385	54,305

The same report also contains index numbers showing the wage changes from 1913 to 1921. These comparable numbers are obtained by comparing the average yearly wages for each year with corresponding wages for 1913. The figures show very uneven wage increases in the different industries.

INDEX NUMBERS OF AVERAGE ANNUAL EARNINGS IN FINLAND, 1913 TO 1921, BY INDUSTRY GROUPS.

[1913=100.]

Industry group.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921
Smelting and metal refining	100	95	112	136	213	281	445	617	674
Machine shops	100	101	120	156	212	484	495	693	815
Fine machinery	100	113	134	184	312	420	613	889	1,185
Stone, coal, glass, clay, and peat	100	92	110	132	201	190	441	620	714
Manufacture of chemical preparations	100	112	117	173	269	322	602	871	1,144
Tar, oil, rubber, etc	100	101	103	135	192	286	393	537	764
Leather and hair	100	98	113	126	193	330	490	579	801
Textiles	100	102	105	136	217	302	499	640	1,121
Paper	100	91	99	123	189	253	375	570	723
Wood	100	91	93	127	197	291	487	764	897
Food	100	102	104	129	170	244	392	637	848
Light, power, etc	100	91	94	117	235	373	426	509	599
Graphite	100	97	102	114	181	274	456	648	782
Other industries	100	125	188	272	206	325	602	729	780
Total	100	96	109	139	209	319	472	679	830

[1] Finland. [Industristyrelsen?] Industristatistik 38 År 1921. Helsingfors, 1923.

Effect of the Eight-Hour Law in France.[1]

IN CONNECTION with the discussion of the budget of the Ministry of Labor in the French Chamber of Deputies in November, 1922, the Minister of Labor made a statement showing the success of the operation of the 8-hour law in France. Speaking from the point of view of the Government, the minister stated there had never been any disposition on the part of the Government to attack the law fixing the length of the working-day. The law is so framed as easily to be adapted to the varying conditions in different industries and allows revision as experience shows it to be necessary.

The labor world secures certain positive benefits from the law, such as reducing the amount of fatigue and increasing the leisure hours and allowing the workers the opportunity to participate more largely in cultural, family, and social activities. The question of the use of the leisure time of the workers has been the subject of study on the part of the ministry. It had been feared that there would be an increase in drinking as a result of the added leisure of the workers, but this has not proven to be the case. The reduction of the working hours has favored the movement of workers to the suburbs of the cities where they can have more healthful surroundings. The number of workers' gardens has increased considerably and there has been increased participation in sports and in trade courses, while the libraries are used much more than formerly. Altogether it is considered that the introduction of the 8-hour day has been a success.

The terms of the law provided that it should be put into effect in the different industries through regulations of the public administration. In November, 1922, 24 decrees had been issued covering 2,878,506 workers; 2 decrees, covering banks and insurance companies and electric power companies, had been submitted to the Council of State; 5 decrees, covering 659,000 workers, had been submitted to the employers' and workers' organizations for approval, and 11 decrees, covering 884,000 workers, were under consideration.

Wage Rates in Various Trades in Germany, February, 1923.

A RECENT issue (March, 1923) of Wirtschaft und Statistik, the official bulletin of the German Statistical Office (*Statistisches Reichsamt*), contains statistics of wage rates current in various German cities for the building trades, wood workers, metal workers, textile workers, and workers in chemical factories, as fixed by collective agreements in force, and compares these wage rates with those of pre-war times.

Building Trades.

IN THE table following are shown the weighted average hourly and weekly wage rates of masons and carpenters and of unskilled building trades workers (helpers) in Germany based on wage statistics available for 23 of the largest cities.

[1] Bulletin du Ministère du Travail, Paris, January-February-March, 1923, pp. 65, 66.

AVERAGE WEIGHTED HOURLY AND WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF BUILDING TRADES WORKERS IN 23 GERMAN CITIES, APRIL, 1922, TO FEBRUARY, 1923.

Month and year.	Wage rates of—				Index of weekly wage rates (1913=100).	
	Masons and carpenters.		Helpers.			
	Per hour.	Per week.	Per hour.	Per week.	Masons and carpenters.	Helpers.
	Marks.	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*		
April, 1922	21	980	20	939	2,600	3,200
July, 1922	35	1,634	33	1,555	4,400	5,300
October, 1922	115	5,436	110	5,184	14,500	17,700
December, 1922	330	15,580	313	14,788	41,500	50,500
January, 1923	488	23,000	463	21,863	61,300	74,700
February, 1923	1,145	54,018	1,088	51,347	144,000	175,500

According to the preceding table the weighted average weekly wage of skilled building trades workers (masons and carpenters) was 54,018 marks in February, 1923, or 1,440 times the pre-war wage, while that of unskilled workers (helpers) was 51,347 marks, or 1,755 times the pre-war wage. In February, 1923, the wages of skilled building trades workers were only 5.2 per cent higher than those of helpers, while in pre-war times the difference in the earnings of these two classes of workers was 28 per cent. These figures demonstrate eloquently how far the process of equalizing wages has gone in Germany in recent times.

For Greater Berlin the movement of wages of building trades workers can be followed up to the end of March, 1923. At that time the weekly wages of skilled workers had risen to 75,200 marks (1,730 times the pre-war wage) and those of unskilled workers to 71,440 marks (2,451 times the pre-war rate).

Woodworking Trades.

THE weighted average hourly and weekly wage rates of skilled and unskilled workers in the woodworking trades are shown in the following table for the period April, 1922, to February, 1923, based on statistics collected in 25 centers of the woodworking industry:

AVERAGE WEIGHTED HOURLY AND WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF WOODWORKERS IN 25 GERMAN CITIES, APRIL, 1922, TO FEBRUARY, 1923.

Month and year.	Wage rates of —				Index of wage rates of skilled workers (1913=100).	
	Skilled workers.		Unskilled workers.			
	Per hour.	Per week.	Per hour.	Per week.	Hourly rates.	Weekly rates.
	Marks.	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*		
April, 1922	19	883	17	782	3,100	2,800
July, 1922	31	1,431	28	1,285	5,100	4,600
October, 1922	108	4,982	97	4,460	17,700	15,900
December, 1922	325	14,950	291	13,402	53,200	47,600
January, 1923	482	22,193	430	19,793	79,000	70,600
February, 1923	1,093	50,338	986	44,115	179,200	160,200

The preceding table shows that in February, 1923, the average hourly wage of skilled woodworkers over 22 years of age was 1,093 marks, or 1,792 times the pre-war wage, and that of unskilled woodworkers 986 marks, or 2,241 times [a] the pre-war wage. The weighted average weekly wage was in the case of skilled workers 50,338 marks, or 1,602 times the pre-war rate, and in that of unskilled workers 44,115 marks, or 1,937 times [a] the pre-war rate. According to these wage data the hourly earnings of skilled woodworkers in February, 1923, exceeded those of unskilled workers by 10.8 per cent, as compared with 38 per cent [a] in pre-war times. Compared with the wage rates for January, 1923, the hourly rates of skilled workers have increased in February, 1923, by 127 per cent and those of unskilled workers by 129 per cent.

In Greater Berlin the wage rates of woodworkers were changed every week during the five-week period—January 28 to March 4, 1923. During the week ending March 4, 1923, the weekly rate of skilled workers was 61,640 marks (1,813 times the pre-war rate) and that of unskilled workers 60,895 marks (2,471 times the pre-war rate).

Metal Trades.

THE movement of time wage rates in the metal trades in 20 centers of the German metal-working industries during the period April, 1922, to February, 1923, is illustrated by the following table:

AVERAGE WEIGHTED WEEKLY TIME WAGE RATES OF ADULT METAL WORKERS IN 20 GERMAN CITIES, APRIL, 1922, TO FEBRUARY, 1923.

Month and year.	Skilled workers.		Semiskilled workers.		Unskilled workers.	
	Single.	Married.[1]	Single.	Married.[1]	Single.	Married.[1]
	Weekly wage rates.					
	Marks.	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*
April, 1922	772	853	745	826	725	807
July, 1922	1,303	1,407	1,250	1,353	1,218	1,322
October, 1922	4,571	4,881	4,359	4,669	4,228	4,538
December, 1922	14,393	15,423	13,748	14,778	13,072	14,101
January, 1923	23,816	25,379	22,654	24,231	21,923	23,500
February, 1923	55,228	59,108	.....	.....	50,954	54,834
	Index numbers (1914=100).					
April, 1922	2,100	2,400	2,400	2,600	3,100	3,400
July, 1922	3,600	3,900	4,000	4,300	5,200	5,600
October, 1922	12,600	13,500	13,800	14,800	17,900	19,300
December, 1922	39,700	42,500	43,500	46,700	55,500	59,800
January, 1923	65,700	70,000	71,600	76,600	93,000	99,700
February, 1923	152,300	163,000	.....	.....	216,200	232,600

[1] The rates shown here for married workers include a family allowance for wife and 2 children under 14 years of age.

In February, 1923, the weighted average weekly time wage rate of married skilled metal workers in the 20 principal centers of the German metal-working industries was 59,108 marks, or 1,630 times the pre-war rate, and that of married unskilled workers was 54,834 marks,

[a] Germany, Statistisches Reichsamt. Wirtshaft und Statistik. March, 1923, p. 185.

or 2,360 times the pre-war rate. Compared with the preceding month, the wages of both skilled and unskilled workers have risen by 133 per cent. A noteworthy fact is that while in pre-war times the wages of skilled metal workers were 54[1] per cent higher than those of unskilled workers, the difference in the wage rates of these two classes of workers is now only 7.8 per cent.

Textile Trades.

THE following table shows the movement of hourly and weekly wage rates of male and female spinners and weavers and unskilled workers in the textile industry during December, 1922, and January and February, 1923, based on wage statistics collected in 14 centers of this industry:

AVERAGE WEIGHTED HOURLY AND WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF ADULT TEXTILE WORKERS IN 14 GERMAN CITIES, BY SEX, DECEMBER, 1922, AND JANUARY AND FEBRUARY, 1923.

Class of workers, month and year.	Wage rates of—				Index of weekly wage rates (1913=100).	
	Male workers.		Female workers.			
	Per hour.	Per week.	Per hour.	Per week.	Male workers.	Female workers.
Spinners and weavers:	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*		
December, 1922	306	14,193	235	10,918	54,200	62,200
January, 1923	488	22,674	373	17,315	86,600	98,700
February, 1923	1,111	51,673	830	38,560	197,400	219,800
Unskilled workers:						
December, 1922	271	12,586	206	9,530	55,900	66,300
January, 1923	439	20,442	324	15,019	90,800	104,500
February, 1923	994	46,282	713	33,009	205,700	229,700

The weighted average hourly wage rate of adult male spinners and weavers was 1,111 marks (2,364 times the pre-war rate) in February, 1923, and that of adult female spinners and weavers, 830 marks (2,677 times the pre-war rate).[2] Male unskilled workers earned 994 marks (2,549 times the pre-war rate) per hour, and female unskilled workers, 713 marks (2,742 times the pre-war rate).[2] As the pre-war weekly hours of labor of between 53 and 61 hours were shortened after the war to between 46 and 48 the weekly earnings of adult skilled male workers in February, 1923, were 51,673 marks (1,974 times the pre-war rate) and those of skilled female workers, 38,560 marks (2,198 times the pre-war rate), while those of unskilled workers were 46,282 marks (2,057 times the pre-war rate) in the case of men, and 33,009 marks (2,297 times the pre-war rate) in the case of women. In February, 1923, the weekly wages of male skilled workers were 11.65 per cent higher than those of male unskilled workers, while in the case of woman workers the difference was equivalent to 16.82 per cent. In 1913 the difference in the weekly wages of skilled and unskilled workers was 16.3 per cent in the case of male workers and 22.1 per cent in that of female workers.[2]

[1] Germany Statistisches Reichsamt. Wirtshaft und Statistik. March, 1923, p. 185.
[2] Idem, p. 186.

Chemical Factories.

THE movement of weekly wage rates of adult single and married workers in chemical factories during the period April, 1922, to February, 1923, is shown in the following table, based on data collected in 15 centers of the chemical industry:

AVERAGE WEIGHTED WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF ADULT SINGLE AND MARRIED WORKERS IN CHEMICAL WORKS IN 15 GERMAN CITIES, APRIL, 1922, TO FEBRUARY, 1923.

Month and year.	Artisans.		Yard men.		Unskilled workers.	
	Single.	Married.[1]	Single.	Married.[1]	Single.	Married.[1]
	Weekly wage rates.					
	Marks.	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*	*Marks.*
April, 1922	913	968	861	915	850	905
July, 1922	1,471	1,536	1,371	1,436	1,356	1,421
October, 1922	5,178	5,335	4,788	4,945	4,734	4,891
December, 1922	16,800	17,410	15,612	16,222	15,446	16,057
January, 1923	26,644	27,646	24,735	25,738	24,482	25,485
February, 1923	63,962	67,090	59,351	62,479	58,730	61,858
	Index numbers (1913–14=100).					
April, 1922	2,800	2,900	3,200	3,400	3,500	3,700
July, 1922	4,500	4,700	5,100	5,400	5,600	5,800
October, 1922	15,700	16,200	17,900	18,500	19,400	20,100
December, 1922	50,900	52,800	58,300	60,600	63,500	66,000
January, 1923	80,800	83,800	92,400	96,200	100,600	104,700
February, 1923	193,900	203,400	221,800	233,500	241,300	254,100

[1] The rates shown here for married workers include a family allowance for wife and 2 children under 14 years of age.

In February, 1923, the weighted average weekly wage rate of married artisans employed in the chemical industry was 67,090 marks (2,034 times the pre-war rate), that of married yardmen, 62,479 marks (2,335 times the pre-war rate), and that of married unskilled workers, 61,858 marks (2,541 times the pre-war rate). The weekly earnings of artisans in February, 1923, were only 8.5 per cent higher than those of unskilled workers, while in pre-war times the difference in their earnings was equivalent to 35.7 per cent. Compared with January, 1923, the wage rates of married artisans, yardmen, and unskilled workers rose by 143 per cent in February.

Wages and Hours of Labor in Specified Industries in Japan, 1920 and 1921.

Wages.

THE average daily wages of Japanese workers in various industries are shown in the Financial and Economic Annual of Japan, 1922 (Tokyo), pages 73–75, for the years 1913 to the first half of 1921, inclusive. In the following table the wages and

index numbers are shown for the different occupations for the last half of 1920 and the first half of 1921, similar data for the years 1911 up to and including the first half of 1920 having been published in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for August, 1922 (pp. 103–105). The index numbers of these wages are based on the average wages paid in 1900 taken as 100.

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES IN JAPAN, 1920 AND 1921.

[1 yen at par=49.85 cents.]

Occupation.	Wages.		Index numbers.		Occupation.	Wages.		Index numbers.	
	1920 [1]	1921 [2]	1920 [1]	1921 [2]		1920 [1]	1921 [2]	1920 [1]	1921 [2]
	Yen.	*Yen.*				*Yen.*	*Yen.*		
Silk spinner, female [3]	1.05	0.80	525	400	Bricklayer	3.25	3.02	516	479
Fisherman [3]	1.37	1.37	351	351	Brick maker	1.81	1.59	402	353
Tailor (European dress)	2.41	2.52	408	427	Floor-mat maker	2.35	2.22	500	472
Clog maker (wooden shoes)	1.91	1.86	478	465	Cabinetmaker	2.28	2.20	456	440
Shoemaker	2.16	2.07	460	440	Lacquerer	1.96	1.87	417	398
Soy maker [4]	44.70	42.30	719	680	Founder	2.28	2.08	485	443
Brewery hand [4]	53.40	51.60	489	473	Blacksmith	2.28	2.07	.....	431
Confectioner [3]	1.61	1.49	537	497	Potter	2.05	1.98	539	521
Carpenter	2.71	2.54	502	470	Oil presser	1.86	1.76	517	489
Plasterer	2.83	2.64	524	515	Paper maker	1.64	1.53	512	478
Stonecutter	3.26	3.14	534	521	Compositor	2.13	2.20	609	629
Tile roofer	3.10	2.87	525	486	Day laborer	2.09	1.97	565	532
					Servant, male [4]	28.86	20.90	1069	774
					Servant, female [4]	22.68	16.61	1454	1065

[1] Last half of 1920.
[2] First half of 1921.
[3] With rations.
[4] Rate per month, with rations.

Hours of Work.

A RÉSUMÉ of an investigation by the Kyocho Kai (Association for Harmonious Cooperation) into the hours of work prevailing in certain industries in Japan is given in Industrial and Labor Information for April 27, 1923.

The working-day in the engineering industry is generally short as compared with other industries, the basic 8-hour day having been adopted in part of the shipyards. The industrial depression of 1921, however, caused a number of shipbuilding yards in eastern Japan to go back to the 9-hour day, although many of the yards in western Japan maintained the working-day of 8 hours. The Mitsubishi Shipbuilding Yard kept the 9-hour day system on the ground that the question of the length of the working-day should not be confused with that of wages. The hours in other machine industries vary from 8 to 9½, the 8-hour day being more common in the western part of the country. The 8-hour day has generally been introduced only as a basis for determining wages as most factories having an 8-hour day work overtime, the hours in general amounting to about 9.

Cotton-spinning factories are operated from 20 to 22 hours per day with two shifts of from 11 to 12 hours. Thirty minutes are allowed for meals and two 15-minute rest periods are given during each shift. Wool and silk mills generally employ two shifts working 12 hours each but most of the jute mills work but one shift of 12 hours, owing to the present depression in that industry.

Seventeen chemical factories were investigated, the majority of which are in continuous operation and work two 12-hour shifts.

The number of factories adopting the 8-hour day is increasing in number, most of these employing two 8-hour shifts while a few have three shifts. The hours of work in chemical factories vary from 8¾ to 12, the hours usually worked being from 10 to 12 per day. Thirty-nine per cent of these factories had the 12-hour day; 35 per cent, 10 hours; 17 per cent, 11 hours; and the remainder 9 and 8 hours. Leather and rubber factories work only in the daytime.

In coal mining there is considerable variation in the hours of work in both the one and two shift mines, the average day of miners being 10 or 12 hours. The three-shift system of 8 hours has been introduced in a few mines. Timbermen work a 12-hour day on two shifts, while dressers usually work 10 hours on a one-shift basis. Other workers are employed in general only during the daytime and their working hours average about 10 per day.

Wages and Hours of Labor in New Zealand, 1909 to 1922.

A SPECIAL feature of the Dominion yearbook for 1923, published by the Government of New Zealand, is a section on wages and wage index numbers. This is the first official compilation of index numbers of wages, and the compiled data are for the years 1909 to 1922, inclusive, the rates being as of March 31 of each year.

The awards of the arbitration court have been made the basis of the wage index numbers for all groups of workers except the two important classes, agricultural and pastoral employees and railway employees, who are not included in the operation of the act and for whom, therefore, no awards exist. Ruling rates of wages in these groups for the respective years were obtained from the Labor Department in the case of the former, and from the Railway Department in that of the latter. Though the rates used are minimum rates and the wages in some cases may be higher than the prescribed minimum, the Dominion statisticians have proceeded on the theory that for the purpose of tracing a wage movement over a period of years the wages fixed by the awards of the arbitration court constitute a more reliable basis than information of actual rates paid in an industry reported by employers or by trade-union secretaries.

The rates used apply only to adult workers without regard to sex. Male workers are employed in most of the industrial groups named, exceptions being the textile and weaving group and the domestic-service group which includes hotel and restaurant workers. In these two groups female workers naturally predominate and the index numbers of the wages paid are for this reason lower than those in groups in which male workers prevail.

Method of Weighting.

THE award rates made for the four principal districts into which New Zealand is divided for industrial purposes, viz, Northern, Wellington, Canterbury, and Otago and Southland, have been used as representing the wages prevalent in the Dominion. If the center of an industry happened to be situated outside the geographical boundaries of these four principal districts the award rates for that

center were used. The method followed in weighting the rates taken from these awards consisted in arranging the occupations for which wage rates were obtained into 14 industrial groups, and the number of workers in each industrial group in each district as recorded on the trade-union registers for December, 1916, was taken as representative of the total number of workers employed in each industry. In the case of the agricultural and pastoral workers it was found that, when compared with the numbers enrolled in other industries, the trade-union figures for these workers were not proportional to the total number of wage earners actually employed in agriculture and cattle raising. The census figures for 1916 were, therefore, used as the basis in weighting the rates for this group of wage earners.

In Table 1 the index numbers of money (or nominal) wages for each of the 14 selected industrial groups and for all groups combined are given from 1909 to 1922, inclusive, as of March 31 of each year. The base used for computing the index numbers is the Dominion weighted average wage for all groups combined for the years 1909 to 1913.

TABLE 1.—INDEX NUMBERS OF MONEY (OR NOMINAL) WAGES IN NEW ZEALAND, BY INDUSTRIAL GROUPS, 1909 TO 1922.

[Dominion weighted average wage for all groups, 1909–1913=1000.]

Industrial group.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922
Food, drink, and tobacco	1013	1019	1031	1037	1058	1081	1073	1114	1175	1191	1217	1410	1609	1680
Clothing, boots, etc	686	714	714	711	733	739	745	741	799	824	874	1041	1190	1248
Textiles and weaving	943	947	947	947	947	974	994	1031	1031	1101	1171	1253	1392	1542
Building	1144	1147	1152	1161	1168	1243	1247	1256	1280	1292	1476	1565	1857	1937
Wood manufacture	1012	1056	1052	1062	1093	1102	1136	1197	1206	1267	1357	1464	1901	1915
Printing, etc	1234	1236	1233	1233	1285	1282	1282	1284	1382	1382	1503	1623	2029	2002
Metal working and engineering	1118	1114	1133	1137	1155	1161	1172	1189	1235	1302	1415	1545	1785	1865
Other manufactures	976	991	999	1031	1034	1061	1110	1151	1197	1217	1281	1548	1781	1846
Mining	1041	1044	1062	1063	1080	1152	1163	1163	1206	1313	1342	1400	1772	1813
Agricultural and pastoral	906	918	927	925	922	1018	1192	1228	1313	1382	1468	1518	1526	1499
Land transport	1004	1013	1007	1055	1082	1083	1088	1160	1193	1212	1365	1590	1729	1707
Shipping and cargo working	1043	1043	1044	1053	1224	1257	1379	1414	1508	1517	1653	1686	2023	2168
Domestic service	867	867	874	876	877	961	1036	1054	1057	1102	1153	1162	1514	1621
Miscellaneous	951	960	949	966	1030	1027	1028	1053	1116	1171	1224	1397	1657	1686
All groups	981	989	993	1004	1033	1078	1137	1169	1222	1264	1360	1470	1677	1716

It is apparent from the data submitted in Table 1 that the change in wages from 1909 to 1913 was not great. From 1914 to 1920 a more rapid upward tendency is seen, and from 1920 to 1922 more marked advances were made. Up to 1915 wage index numbers for the printing and bookbinding industry continuously led, but they were gradually overtaken by those for shipping and cargo working, which in 1922 were higher than those for any other group. The wage index numbers for the group covering clothing, boots, etc., remained consistently lowest throughout the period for which data were compiled.

The handbook states that a comparison made of the index numbers for all groups combined in each of the four principal industrial districts showed that no appreciable differences existed as between districts.

In the compilation of the index numbers shown in Table 1 no allowance was made for changes in the purchasing power of money during the period under review. This is an important factor,

for a rise in wages may be offset by a fall in the purchasing power of money and a fall in money wages by a rise in purchasing power. Allowance can be made for this factor by taking the retail-price index numbers as indicative of the movement in the purchasing power of money. Thus the approximate purchasing power of the wages represented by the index numbers in Table 1 is expressed in terms of the index numbers of effective wages in Table 2, which follows. In New Zealand four elements enter into the compilation of retail-price index numbers, viz, food, rent, fuel, and light. Unfortunately, owing to the lack of complete data of this character prior to 1914, it seemed expedient to use only the index numbers of the three food groups (groceries, dairy produce, and meat) throughout. The index numbers of effective wages (Table 2) are, for this reason, probably somewhat higher than they would have been if the retail price statistics had been complete. Changes in hours of labor and other factors also affecting the relation of real to nominal wages were not considered.

TABLE 2.—INDEX NUMBERS OF EFFECTIVE (OR REAL) WAGES IN NEW ZEALAND, BY INDUSTRIAL GROUPS, AND ALL GROUPS COMBINED, 1909 TO 1922.

[Average for 1909–1913=1000.]

Group.	1909	1910	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922
Food, drink, and tobacco	1042	1028	1049	1020	1020	1018	902	893	873	831	809	815	889	1112
Clothing, boots, etc	705	720	726	699	707	696	627	594	594	575	581	602	657	826
Textiles and weaving	970	956	963	931	913	917	836	827	766	768	778	724	769	1021
Building	1177	1157	1172	1142	1126	1170	1049	1007	951	901	982	905	1026	1282
Wood manufacture	1041	1066	1070	1044	1054	1038	955	960	896	884	902	846	1050	1267
Printing, etc	1270	1247	1254	1212	1239	1207	1078	1030	1027	964	999	938	1121	1325
Metal working and engineering	1150	1124	1153	1118	1114	1093	986	953	918	908	940	893	986	1234
Other manufactures	1004	1000	1016	1014	997	999	934	923	889	849	851	895	984	1222
Mining	1071	1053	1080	1045	1041	1085	978	933	896	916	892	809	979	1200
Agricultural and pastoral	932	926	943	910	889	959	1003	985	975	964	975	877	843	992
Land transport	1033	1022	1024	1037	1043	1020	915	930	886	845	907	919	955	1130
Shipping and cargo working	1073	1052	1062	1035	1180	1184	1160	1134	1120	1058	1098	975	1118	1435
Domestic service	892	875	889	861	846	905	871	845	785	768	766	672	836	1073
Miscellaneous	978	969	965	950	993	967	865	844	829	817	813	808	915	1116
All groups combined	1009	998	1010	987	996	1015	956	937	908	881	904	850	927	1136

The unweighted average of the award rates in certain of the principal occupations in the four principal industrial districts are shown in Table 3. The estimated value of food and lodging is included in the rates quoted for hotel employees, agricultural and pastoral workers, and workers in the shipping industry.

TABLE 3.—AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGES IN FOUR PRINCIPAL DISTRICTS OF NEW ZEALAND, BY OCCUPATION AND YEAR, 1913 TO 1922, AND HOURS OF LABOR, IN 1922.

[1 shilling at par=24.3 cents; 1 penny=2.03 cents.]

Industry and occupation.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	
										Wages.	Hours.
Agricultural and pastoral industry:[1]	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	
General farm hands	40 0	41 8	53 0	54 9	58 1½	58 7½	61 9	63 0	53 0	50 4½	.....
Harvesters	64 0	64 4	94 4	95 10	102 2	113 2	112 8	112 8	112 8	90 6	.....
Herdsmen	52 4	53 10	75 4	78 0	81 10	83 8	89 0	79 2	79 2	112 9	.....
Plowmen	43 10	45 8	59 4½	61 0	65 0	66 1½	69 3	68 0	58 0	54 1½	.....
Shepherds	44 4	46 6	61 3	63 6	66 10½	68 0	70 6	60 6	53 0	56 7½	.....
Wool pressers	47 4	48 0	75 4	75 4	75 4	77 1½	91 9	94 4½	101 7½	99 0	.....
Baking:											
Journeymen	55 0	55 0	55 0	58 9	60 0	60 0	67 6	77 0	94 6	95 3	48
Laborers	48 0	48 0	48 0	51 4	53 0	53 0	55 4	66 0	78 1½	78 10½	48
Building:											
Bricklayers	68 5½	68 5½	68 5½	71 5½	71 5½	71 5½	84 4	88 0	97 7½	107 11½	44
Carpenters	61 7½	64 3½	66 0	66 0	66 0	73 4	77 11	79 9	94 10½	101 1	44
Joiners	61 7½	64 3½	66 0	66 0	66 0	73 4	77 11	79 9	94 10½	101 1	44
Laborers, bricklayers'	52 0½	55 0	55 0	55 0	60 6	60 6	64 6½	73 4	87 1	87 1	44
Laborers, carpenters'	46 10½	52 6½	52 6½	53 2	56 1½	57 5¾	59 6	67 10	84 6¾	84 6¾	44
Plasterers	67 9½	67 9½	67 9½	67 9½	71 6	74 8½	76 6½	87 1	100 1	105 7½	44
Plumbers, competent	60 4	66 0	66 0	66 0	66 0	73 4	78 10	82 6	102 5½	102 5¼	44
Hide and leather workers:											
Curriers	58 0	58 0	58 6	61 4	62 8	62 8	70 8	90 8	100 0	100 0	48
General hands	45 0	49 6	53 9	53 11½	60 3	61 3	63 3	76 9	85 9	85 9	48
Pelt-fleshers	50 0	54 6	57 3	58 6	63 0	64 0	65 6	80 5½	90 8½	90 8½	48
Hotels:[1]											
Males—											
Chefs	83 1½	86 10½	92 9¾	92 9¾	92 9¾	92 9¾	95 11½	97 8½	115 3¾	120 0	48
Waiters	50 10	53 0	58 9	58 9	58 9	59 7	63 1½	64 1½	86 3	95 0	48
Females—											
Cooks	44 4½	46 3	52 6	52 6	52 6	55 0	60 0	60 6	74 1½	82 6	48
Housemaids	32 7½	34 10½	41 7½	41 7½	41 7½	43 3	47 6	48 0	60 4½	65 0	48
Waitresses	37 4¾	39 1¾	45 3½	45 3½	45 3½	45 7½	48 1½	48 6	63 4½	67 6	48
Metal trades:											
Blacksmiths	61 4	61 7	63 0¾	64 0½	64 6½	65 5½	66 11½	75 6½	81 3	81 3	45
Boilermakers (journeymen)	62 8	62 8	62 8	64 7½	66 3¾	76 10½	80 9½	87 1¾	102 5¼	102 1½	44½
Engineering—											
Electricians	61 8¾	61 10½	61 10½	63 3½	66 6½	68 4	71 6	82 6	101 0¾	101 9	.....
Fitters	64 7½	64 7½	64 7½	64 7½	67 1½	74 8½	77 9½	84 2½	102 5½	100 10	.....
Motor mechanics	64 11½	64 11½	64 11½	64 7½	67 1½	66 7½	77 10½	88 1½	101 0½	101 9	.....
Molders, iron and brass	64 7½	64 7½	64 7½	64 7½	68 3½	72 2½	77 1½	84 2½	100 2	101 4½	.....
Tinsmiths, journeymen	62 8	62 8	62 8	62 8	65 1½	70 9	78 4	82 3	92 9½	104 0½	45½
Mineral and stone trades:											

Motor mechanics	64 11½	64 11½	64 11½	64 7½	67 1½	66 7½	77 10½	88 1½	101 0½	101 9	.....
Molders, iron and brass	64 7½	64 7½	64 7½	64 7½	68 3½	72 2½	77 1½	84 2½	100 2	101 4½	.....
Tinsmiths, journeymen	62 8	62 8	62 8	62 8	65 1½	70 9	78 4	82 3	92 9½	104 0½	45½
Mineral and stone trades:											
Brickmakers	53 11½	53 11½	53 11½	53 11½	53 11½	53 11½	62 7½	70 11½	87 5½	101 8	47½
General hands	46 9½	46 9½	48 3½	50 6½	51 11	51 11	53 11	60 6½	79 0½	91 0	47½
Mining, coal:											
Above ground—											
Engine drivers	55 0	55 0	55 0	55 0	55 0	62 8½	62 8½	62 8½	62 8½	90 6	43
General hands	48 9½	54 3½	54 3¾	54 3¾	56 8½	67 9½	67 9½	67 9½	88 0	89 8	43
Tippers	50 9½	53 7½	53 7½	53 7½	56 2¾	56 2¾	67 2½	67 2½	88 0	89 8	43
Below ground—											
Miners	61 10½	63 3	63 1½	63 1½	66 2	77 4½	77 4½	76 2¼	89 0½	104 1½	43
Truckers	55 0	55 11	55 11	55 11	57 0	66 10	66 10	66 10	84 10½	95 4¾	43
Mining, gold:											
Cyanide workers	54 0	57 0	60 0	60 0	61 6	61 6	62 3	66 0	82 8½	84 2½	45¼
Dry-shaft battery workers	55 0	59 0	59 6	59 6	59 6	59 6	62 11½	65 7¼	92 3	80 7¼	45¼
Wet-shaft battery workers	52 6	60 0	61 6	61 6	61 6	61 6	64 11¾	67 10	93 9	81 7	45¼
Quarrymen	50 4¾	52 8½	56 0	56 0	59 8¾	60 11½	63 2	73 7½	87 10½	87 10½	46¼
Sawmilling:											
Engine drivers	54 0	54 0	57 9	57 9	60 0	67 6	67 6	67 6	98 6	96 6	45¾
General hands	51 0	51 0	52 6	52 6	53 7¼	58 9¾	59 0½	65 3½	85 6½	88 1¾	45¾
Sawyers	53 0½	53 0½	54 2¾	54 2¾	58 5½	63 1	65 6	72 5	94 3¾	99 11¾	45¾
Yardmen	55 8¾	55 8¾	55 8¾	55 7½	54 10¾	59 6	59 8	65 3½	86 0½	88 7½	45¾
Shipping:[1]											
Assistant stewards, first class	40 4½	40 4½	47 10½	56 6½	56 6½	56 6½	61 9	84 9¾	94 7½	94 7½	60
Assistant stewards, second class	33 5½	33 5½	40 11½	49 7½	49 7½	49 7½	59 5	82 6	92 3¾	92 3¾	60
Chief cooks	75 0	75 0	82 6	85 11½	85 11½	85 11½	98 8	106 9	116 6¾	133 10	60
Second cooks	51 11	51 11	59 5	62 10¾	62 10¾	62 10¾	80 2	88 3	98 0¾	108 5½	60
A. B. seamen	48 10	50 4½	59 5	59 11	73 3	73 3	79 0	87 1½	96 11	96 11	56
Ordinary seamen, first class	38 1	41 1¾	50 2	54 0	57 1	57 1	61 8½	65 2	73 10	73 10	56
Waterside workers, ordinary cargo	59 0¾	62 4	62 4	67 10	73 4	80 8	80 8	80 8	99 0	99 0	44
Shoe manufacturing:											
Male operators, first grade	52 6	52 6	52 6	52 6	59 0¾	59 0¾	67 6	75 0	83 5¼	91 8	44
Female operators, journeywomen	27 6	27 6	27 6	27 6	31 6	31 6	35 0	40 0	44 6	51 6	44
Slaughtering and meat packing:											
Freezing—chamber hands	63 0	64 0	64 6	64 6	72 0	72 0	72 0	92 0	92 0	105 9¾	44
General hands	50 0	54 0	54 6	54 6	54 6	64 6	63 0	77 0	77 0	88 6½	44
Meat preserving—											
Boners	60 0	62 0	61 3	62 9	72 0	72 0	72 0	81 1½	81 1½	101 2½	.....
Meat preservers	56 4¾	59 6	59 5	61 3	70 6	70 6	70 6	79 3½	79 3¾	92 9¼	.....
Sausage casing makers	54 0	58 8	59 7	59 7	66 7¼	66 11	66 11	83 10¼	90 8	90 2¼	.....
Slaughtermen, competent—											
Cattle	56 0	56 0	56 0	56 0	56 0	56 0	56 0	61 3	63 0	70 10½	.....
Sheep	59 8½	62 7½	62 7½	62 7½	64 8½	64 8½	64 8½	75 8¾	81 6½	91 9	.....
Tailoring:											
Males—											
Journeymen	53 9	53 9	56 3	56 3	56 3	62 6	62 6	77 6	93 9	98 0	44
Factory hands	56 0	56 0	56 0	56 0	60 2¼	61 7¼	61 7¼	77 0	87 1	89 10	44
Females, shop—											
Coat hands	29 0	30 0	30 0	30 0	30 0	31 0	35 0	39 3	47 11	48 2½	44
Operators, machine	25 9	26 9	26 9	27 6	27 6	29 2	32 0	35 4¾	47 11	48 2½	44
Females, factory—											
Journeywomen	27 6	27 6	27 6	27 6	29 6¾	30 3	30 3	37 0	41 6	45 0	44

[1] Rates include estimated value of food and lodging.

TABLE 3.—AVERAGE WEEKLY WAGES IN FOUR PRINCIPAL DISTRICTS OF NEW ZEALAND, BY OCCUPATION AND YEAR, 1913 TO 1922, AND HOURS OF LABOR, IN 1922—Concluded.

Industry and occupation.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1922	
										Wages.	Hours.
Transportation:											
Steam railroads—	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	*s. d.*	
Engineers, first grade	75 0	75 0	75 0	81 0	81 0	81 0	93 0	114 0	113 8	107 8	44
Engineers, second grade	69 0	69 0	69 0	75 0	75 0	81 0	87 0	105 0	105 5	99 5	44
Firemen, first grade	60 0	60 0	60 0	66 0	66 0	66 0	78 0	96 0	96 3	90 3	44
Firemen, second grade	57 0	57 0	57 0	63 0	63 0	63 0	75 0	93 0	93 6	87 6	44
Guards, first grade	63 0	63 0	63 0	69 0	69 0	69 0	81 0	108 0	108 2	102 2	44
Guards, second grade	57 0	57 0	57 0	63 0	63 0	63 0	75 0	105 0	105 5	99 5	44
Street railways—											
Conductors	47 7½	47 7½	48 1½	49 0	49 0	52 7¾	61 10¼	61 10¼	80 1½	79 10½	48
Motormen	53 6	53 6	53 6	54 3	54 3	57 10½	65 10¾	65 10¾	83 4½	83 7½	48
Woolen mills:											
Males—											
Spinners	50 0	51 0	52 0	52 0	52 0	63 9	63 9	71 3	81 6¾	93 9	45
General hands	45 0	46 6	48 0	48 0	48 0	59 6	59 6	67 6	77 9¾	82 6	45
Females—											
All adults	25 0	26 3	31 3	31 3	31 3	33 2¼	33 2¼	37 6	40 9½	45 0	45

The material from which the index numbers for the hours of labor prevailing in the different districts and occupations, 1909 to 1922, were compiled, was obtained largely from the same sources furnishing material for the wage index numbers, namely, the awards of the arbitration court. In those instances in which the awards did not fix the hours of labor, data from the factories' acts were used. Agricultural and pastoral workers were not included in the computations.

Considering the Dominion weighted average 1909 to 1913 as 1000, the index numbers of the hours worked for all groups (given in the yearbook but not reproduced here) showed a slight decline (992) in 1915 as compared with 1909 to 1913. There was an increase in 1916, followed by a decrease in 1917 and 1918. An upward tendency was again apparent in 1919 and subsequently the hours-of-labor index number gradually fell to 944 in 1922. The variation over the entire period was not marked. The hours of labor in selected important industries prevailing in the four principal districts during 1922 are given in Table 3.

Renewal of Eight-hour Law in Sweden.

A CONSULAR report from Stockholm, Sweden, under date of May 8, 1923, states that the question of the renewal or rejection of the 8-hour law in Sweden was brought to a vote in the Swedish Parliament May 3, 1923.

The proposal for extending the validity of the present temporary statute, with certain revisions, up to the end of 1926 was passed by a large majority.

The revisions make exceptions to the general provisions of the law in the case of workers in the peat industry and the building industry with respect to farms. Provisions have been made for greater elasticity regarding overtime with or without the consent of the labor council.

PRODUCTION AND EFFICIENCY OF LABOR.

Production in French Coal Mines and Output Per Worker, October to December, 1922.

THE total production of coal and lignite in French mines and in the basin of the Saar in the last quarter of 1922, and the number of workers employed, are reported in the Bulletin du Ministère du Travail (Paris), January-March, 1923 (pp. 3, 4). From these statistics the following tables have been prepared, showing the total number of underground workers, and of underground and surface workers combined, the total amount of coal mined per month and the average monthly output per employee. Metric tons have been reduced to tons of 2,000 pounds.

NUMBER OF MINE WORKERS AND TOTAL AMOUNT OF COAL MINED IN FRANCE, IN LAST QUARTER OF 1922, BY DISTRICT AND MONTH.

[In tons of 2,000 pounds.]

District.	Underground workers.			Total workers (underground and surface).			Total tons (2,000 pounds) mined.		
	October.	November.	December.	October.	November.	December.	October.	November.	December.
Alais	10,215	10,253	10,253	17,726	17,784	17,742	185,030	177,341	181,533
Arras	36,138	37,021	38,721	49,605	50,540	52,407	703,477	715,131	703,982
Bordeaux	351	351	373	582	586	616	6,172	5,929	5,915
Clermont-Ferrand	6,340	6,401	6,526	9,637	9,759	9,911	126,715	120,851	124,382
Douai	47,644	50,209	51,532	69,931	72,318	73,557	802,655	802,496	809,348
Lyon	9,049	9,061	9,195	14,718	14,786	14,872	262,582	248,777	247,198
Marseille	2,590	2,754	2,826	4,042	4,233	4,296	73,780	69,002	72,238
Nancy	805	817	859	1,374	1,387	1,430	9,199	8,186	8,576
Nantes	397	379	392	569	545	590	5,453	5,567	5,166
St. Etienne	15,723	16,034	16,279	23,986	24,397	24,823	357,488	346,976	357,681
Strassburg	18,683	19,095	19,458	25,724	26,180	26,456	404,874	414,558	420,229
Toulouse	8,429	8,360	8,480	12,446	12,303	12,376	176,009	171,117	173,146
Total	156,364	160,735	164,894	230,102	234,818	239,082	3,113,439	3,085,931	3,109,394
Saar Basin	54,818	55,052	54,926	72,407	72,795	72,790	1,115,320	829,685	1,077,732

AVERAGE OUTPUT OF COAL PER WORKER IN COAL MINING DISTRICTS OF FRANCE, LAST QUARTER OF 1922, BY DISTRICT AND MONTH.

District.	Average output (tons of 2,000 pounds).					
	Underground workers.			All workers.		
	October.	November.	December.	October.	November.	December.
Alais	18.1	17.3	17.7	10.4	10.0	10.2
Arras	19.5	19.3	18.2	14.2	14.1	13.4
Bordeaux	17.6	16.9	15.9	10.6	10.1	9.6
Clermont-Ferrand	20.0	18.9	19.0	13.1	12.4	12.6
Douai	16.8	16.0	15.7	11.5	11.1	11.0
Lyon	29.0	27.5	26.9	17.8	16.9	16.6
Marseille	28.5	25.0	25.5	18.3	16.3	16.8
Nancy	11.4	10.0	10.0	6.7	5.9	6.0
Nantes	13.7	14.4	13.2	9.6	10.2	8.8
St. Etienne	22.7	21.6	22.0	14.9	14.2	14.4
Strassburg	21.7	21.7	21.6	15.7	15.8	15.9
Toulouse	21.0	20.5	20.4	14.1	13.9	14.0
Total	19.9	18.6	19.0	13.5	13.1	13.0
Saar Basin	22.2	15.1	19.6	15.1	11.4	14.8

Operations of British Coal Mines, First Quarter of 1923.[1]

OWING to the disorganization of the European supplies of coal and coke, due to the French occupation of the Ruhr, exports of British coal remained during the first quarter of 1923 at the high level reached during the second half of 1922.[2] The disorganization also affected the metal industries of Europe, thus leading to an increased demand for English metal products, which in turn led to a greater home demand for coal.

The output during the quarter ending March 31, 1923, was 79,568,160 short tons, as compared with 77,011,200 during the last quarter of 1922, and 69,666,240 during the first quarter of 1922. The output of screened or sorted coal was nearly 78,400,000 tons, a figure which has not been equaled in the corresponding quarter since 1914. Apparently the output per man shift worked remained at the high point reached during the last quarter of 1922 (0.905 short ton).

Persons employed in and about the mines, including clerks and those on salaries, numbered on an average 1,158,000. The number of wage earners increased from 1,129,500 at the end of December, 1922, to 1,147,600 at the end of March, 1923. The Ministry of Labor figures[3] give 1,224,660 coal-mine workers insurable against unemployment. Of these, according to figures furnished by the employment exchanges, 43,745 were unemployed on March 26, 1923, a decrease of about 22 per cent from the 56,372 unemployed at the end of December, 1922.

The number of days during the quarter on which coal was mined was 70.73 as compared with 69.60 for the last quarter of 1922, and 66.85 for the first quarter of that year.

Wages fluctuated slightly during January and February, but at the end of March they were in general either at the same figure as at the end of December, or slightly lower. The following table shows the wages paid in South Wales and Monmouth, and in Derbyshire, for the various classes of miners from December 15, 1922, to March 15, 1923:

RATES OF WAGES PER SHIFT IN COAL MINES, DECEMBER, 1922, TO MARCH, 1923.
[Shilling at par=24.3 cents; penny=2.03 cents.]

District and occupation.	Dec. 15, 1922.	Jan. 15, 1923.	Feb. 15, 1923.	Mar. 15, 1923.
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
South Wales and Monmouth:[a]				
Colliers	8 10	8 10	8 10	8 10
Rippers	7 8	7 8	7 8	7 8
Haulers	7 6	7 6	7 6	7 6
Laborers[b]	7 2	7 2	7 2	7 2
Derbyshire (except South Derbyshire):				
Top hard seams—				
Room and pillar men	11 9	12 0	12 0	11 7
Rippers and timbermen[c]	10 5	10 8	10 8	10 4
Corporals (adults)[d]	9 11	10 1	10 1	9 10
Day laborers (adults)[c]	9 6	9 9	9 9	9 5
All other seams—				
Room and pillar men	11 7	11 9	11 9	11 5
Rippers and timbermen[c]	10 2	10 4	10 4	10 1
Corporals (adults)[d]	9 6	9 9	9 9	9 5
Day laborers (adults)[c]	9 1	9 3	9 3	8 11

[a] Men working on the afternoon and night shifts in this district are paid at the rate of six shifts' wages for a full working week of five shifts.
[b] Class A workers, i. e., those entitled as the head or support of a family to a supply of house coal. Class B workers, i. e., those not so entitled, receive 6s. 8d.
[c] Other than chargemen.
[d] District foremen in charge of the underground haulage ways.
[1] Board of Trade Journal, London, May 24, 1923, pp. 613-616.
[2] See MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, May, 1923, pp. 150, 151.
[3] Ministry of Labor Gazette, London, January, 1923 (p. 22), and April, 1923 (p. 137).

The rates of pieceworkers are higher than those shown above, and no allowance is made for house coal supplied to miners free or at special prices.

The total net cost of producing a ton of coal during the quarter ended December 31, 1922, was 16s. 11.8d. ($4.13, par). Wages constituted 11s. 4.95d. ($2.78, par) of this amount.

Production in Japanese Coal Mines in 1920.

THE Financial and Economic Annual of Japan, 1922 (Tokyo), contains statistical information relating to the operation of Japanese coal mines for the years 1911 to 1920. A compiled table showing the number of employees, days worked, production and consumption, average output per worker per day, the amount of exports and the excess production, for the years 1910 to 1919, was published in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for August, 1922 (p. 111). The information for 1920 shows that there were 342,873 persons employed in Japanese coal mines in 1920, a reduction of 5,367 from the preceding year, while there were 81,129,349 days worked as against 83,860,075 in 1919, the average number of days worked per man being 236.6. The production amounted to 32,237,187 short tons in 1920, 2,347,381 of which were exported. The average production per man per day computed from the production and the total number of days worked was 0.4 ton, there having been a steady decrease each year in the average daily output per man from 0.58 ton in 1913, the highest figure shown in the 11-year period.

Coal Production in Poland in 1922.[1]

THE amount of coal produced in Poland in the first half of 1922 was considerably in excess of the amount produced in the same period in 1921. This improvement in output was due to changes in the method of payment of wages, especially the suppression of the practice of payment of part of the wages in food, improvement in mining methods, and better railroad service. The establishment of governmental control of the coal industry also had an effect upon the coal-mining situation, and the granting of export licenses to mines which had installed new machinery enabled such mines to pay for these installations and at the same time the effect of these improvements began to be felt in improved production.

In July, 1922, the number of workers employed in the mines was 10 per cent greater than at the beginning of 1922 and 13 per cent greater than during the same period in 1921. The increase in output in the first half of 1922 amounted to 761,364 metric tons (839,252 short tons) in the basin of Dombrowa, the largest mining center, and 911,712 tons (1,004,980 short tons) for the entire country, including about 20,000 tons (22,042 short tons) of lignite.

The following table shows the coal production in the different mining sections of Poland in the first half of 1922, by months, and the production in July, 1922, as compared with July, 1921:

[1] Revue de l'Industrie Minérale, Paris, May 1, 1923, Troisième partie, pp. 160-163.

COAL PRODUCTION IN DIFFERENT MINING SECTIONS IN POLAND, IN FIRST HALF OF 1922, BY MONTHS, AND IN JULY, 1921 AND 1922.

[In tons of 2,000 pounds.]

Year and month.	Production of—				
	Coal.			Lignite.	Total.
	Basin of Dombrowa.	Basin of Cracorie.	Teschan.		
1922:					
January	617,512	171,565	15,824	19,449	824,350
February	574,098	171,743	14,225	17,650	777,716
March	720,913	209,650	18,500	19,673	968,735
April	555,543	173,721	15,205	15,977	760,446
May	613,035	179,689	14,978	20,299	828,001
June	638,819	174,728	14,630	18,831	847,007
Total	3,719,920	1,081,096	93,362	111,878	5,006,255
July, 1921	582,567	129,928	12,134	14,572	739,201
July, 1922	713,551	191,414	16,511	15,514	936,990

The following table shows the total number of workers employed in the basin of Dombrowa at the end of each month in the six-month period from January to June, 1922, and in July, 1922, the total number of one-man days, and the average output per worker per day. The total number of workdays lost because of strikes during the seven months amounted to 98,704.

NUMBER OF WORKERS EMPLOYED AT END OF EACH MONTH IN POLISH COAL MINES, TOTAL NUMBER OF ONE-MAN DAYS, AND AVERAGE DAILY OUTPUT PER WORKER, JANUARY TO JULY, 1922.

Month.	Number of workers employed at end of month.	Number of one-man days.	Average daily output per worker (short tons).
1922:			
January	45,183	1,078,502	0.57
February	45,627	960,316	.60
March	46,913	1,186,352	.61
April	46,985	986,938	.56
May	47,625	1,076,094	.57
June	48,231	1,022,385	.62
Total (half year)	.....	6,310,587	.58
July	48,696	1,082,828	.65

MINIMUM WAGE.

Views of a Massachusetts Employer on the Minimum Wage.

THE Massachusetts Legislature of 1922 provided for a commission among whose duties was that of inquiring into the workings of the minimum wage law of the State. In connection with this investigation Mr. Edward A. Filene prepared an article setting forth his attitude toward the law, and on account of his wide experience as a retail merchant, and the definiteness of his opinions, a summary of the article [1] is here reproduced.

He expressed his sympathy with those who feel that wages must come down if the expenses of distribution are to be reduced, but he felt this view to be the result of a misconception rather than of an exact appreciation of the situation.

* * * My experience has been—and I think the general experience has proved—that policies that have been necessary for humanitarian reasons have turned out to be good business policies.

One of the practices that is equally good ethics and good business is the payment of a living wage. * * * Wages are counterfeit unless they will buy what is needed to live on plus a fair margin. Real wages are always determined by what they will buy. * * * Good living and good citizenship depend in important part on real wages. Counterfeit wages won't support either one; a real wage will support both. Every industry is under obligation to pay a real wage.

Mr Filene recognizes the lack of system in the development of the methods of distribution now in operation. Efforts to remedy wasteful competition have resulted in the establishment of chain stores, of which there has been "a very extraordinary growth," indicating a corresponding reduction in the number of small independent stores unless they can secure for themselves by cooperation some compensating advantages. Many more stores exist than can be properly supported. "The recent figures are preposterous—something like a store for every 26 families in the country."

In recognition of the disproportionate expense of maintaining small stores, the Filene organization closed out stores in the smaller towns, though thereby "we sacrificed half the capital. We saw that the conditions under which we were working were impossible for any man who holds himself responsible for decent real service in business."

A small store that is threatened with extinction can lessen its chances of being forced out of business by making its business more efficient.

One of the ways of making itself more efficient is to pay wages that will command a high enough grade of employees to make it unnecessary for the proprietor to put in most of his time directing and correcting errors of inefficient, underpaid people.

The most important idea underlying the minimum wage is that our country can have an adequate market only by having properly paid wage earners. It should be emphasized always that the body of consumers is made up in large part from wage earners, and that on this account power of consumption comes from the wages and salaries that are earned.

[1] "Minimum wage and maximum profit," by Edward A. Filene. 4 pp. Reprinted from American Cloak and Suit Review.

The present export condition is such that the home market must be more fully developed; and "these home markets are not going to support our business properly with underpaid people." If purchasing capacity is so reduced as to lead to the buying of only absolute necessities, "production will outrun distribution and business become dull."

Low wages, low purchasing power, accumulation of excess stocks that can not be sold, business stagnation—that is a vicious circle that can be avoided by a high wage scale and by a high wage scale alone. High wages will enable the public to continue to purchase even under conditions that with low wages would bring distress. Therefore, a minimum wage placed high enough to purchase the items of a living budget—yes, even a generous living budget—is extremely important just now to the business of the country.

The necessity for State intervention is found in the natural tendency of wages "to go down toward the standard set by the meanest and most short-sighted employers," who "for the sake of profit want to squeeze the last penny from their help." As to this Mr. Filene says: "I am sure we shall agree that the State has a right to step in, in such cases, and fix a limit beyond which cupidity shall not go, especially in dealing with inexperienced women and children."

The law of Massachusetts is not mandatory, depending upon publicity and the attitude of the employer for its acceptance. The question of the enactment of a mandatory law was considered, and in this connection "it is argued that a mandatory minimum wage law in any State would drive out certain lines of business."

* * * I would answer that it is better for any business or any industry not able to pay the minimum wage to leave the State. * * *

Any business that can not pay a living wage—a wage that will produce profitable consumers—is not good for the State and has no place in it. By not paying its employees an adequate wage, it forces them to be supported, at least in part, by their relatives, friends, or by the public. The charges which the public bears on their account must be added to the cost of living, and go finally into the cost of the products of the better-managed businesses, making it more difficult for them to compete with the products of businesses situated in States where underpayment is not allowed. This is a thing I want emphatically to mention.

The ordinary viewpoint that the minimum wage is a benefit to the worker only is combatted. The contention being made "that it is a boon to the employer as well as to the employee."

Low wages make cheap standards in employers and cheap standards in employers result in inefficient employees. The average employer has to use a very large part of his time and energy in trying to keep things running smoothly between his executives and employees.

This is not due to any viciousness of the employees, but merely to the fact that they are an underpaid and discontented group of people. A working girl worried about paying for her clothing and lodging isn't going to be either happy or ambitious.

You can not get effective organization out of people who are unintelligent, and people can not be really intelligent who have not enough to live on properly. * * *

A $14 minimum wage moreover forces us to get $14 worth of work out of an employee. If the State fixes the minimum wage at a proper level, it helps me as well as my employees.

It helps me first by making sure that somebody isn't going to undersell me at the expense of his employees. It also prevents me as an employer from having a body of employees who, because they are not paid decent wages, are incapable of being consumers for my business. In the third place, it helps me by forcing me to help every employee to earn at least $14. * * *

When wages are paid that remove worry, that allow the building up of physical and mental energy by proper food, housing, and the increase of comfort and selfrespect by the purchase of proper clothing, and similar necessities, the chance is created for

more intelligent action on the part of employees, for study and training that will fit them for good work and for greater efficiency in the jobs at which they are employed.

A real minimum wage means a leveling up in the whole housekeeping of the city, of the State, and of the nation. It means that we have got to set our scales right, that we have got to make the conditions in our cities and States such that people can get a living if they are willing to work. It means that we have got to give them enough training so that they can earn a living. I am convinced that the minimum wage is one of the big means toward public efficiency.

Recent Minimum-Wage Orders.

California.

THE Industrial Welfare Commission of California has recently (May 3, 1923) issued a new order relative to the subject of employment in laundries and dry-cleaning establishments. The weekly rate of $16 is unchanged, but instead of prescribing a monthly rate, a rate of 38 cents per hour is established. The learning time is reduced from six months to three months, during which the minimum wage of $12 per week or 30 cents per hour remains unchanged.

A new class designated "special workers" is made, which consists of women and minors employed on a full day's basis for less than the standard week. These, if experienced, are to receive not less than $2.67 per day; they are to be distinguished from part-time workers, who are employed on an hourly basis for less than eight hours in any day, and are to receive not less than 40 cents per hour. It will be noted that both these rates are somewhat in advance of the minimum wage for the continuous regular worker.

Oregon.

THE Industrial Welfare Commission of Oregon, in its Fifth Biennial Report covers the period from January 1, 1921, to December 31, 1922. This commission is charged with general supervision of the industrial welfare of women and children, so that its authority extends beyond the fixing of wage rates. An important part of its work has been the improvement of sanitary conditions in berry and hop fields, and orchards, since large numbers of women including in many cases whole families, are employed in these places. Sanitary codes and special regulations have resulted, which lie outside the strict purview of the matter of minimum wage. However, the same class of labor, i. e., seasonal and floating, is the subject of constant attention, a conference on wage rates in canneries having been held in January, 1922. This conference led to the adoption of a revised order (No. 47) in which a classification of fruits was made, and the apprenticeship period fitted thereto. Piece rates were given for the different operations and classes of fruits, etc., and time rates were fixed at a minimum of 27½ cents per hour for experienced workers and 22 cents for inexperienced workers. The rate was held to be satisfactory if 50 per cent of the women employed were able to earn at piece work an amount equal to the hourly time rate of 27½ cents; slow time workers were excluded from the computation.

The rates fixed correspond to those in the original order as presented in United States Bureau of Labor Statistics Bul. No. 285 on page 333, the amendments affecting classification and computations rather than the basic wage. Instead of a general apprenticeship period of three weeks, the time is limited to one week in each group of the different classes into which the fruits are divided. There appears to be no limitation on the numbers or proportion of apprentices, and one large establishment is reported as discharging its workers when they have completed the learning time, which leads to large turnover, adding "an expensive item to the overhead."

LABOR AGREEMENTS, AWARDS, AND DECISIONS.

Shipping.

THE Shipping Board has announced agreements effecting changes in scales for longshoremen in the Hampton Roads district, Portland, Me., and Boston, Mass., and a revision of the hours and wage scales of unlicensed members of the deck and engine department crews of Shipping Board vessels.

Longshoremen—Portland, Me., and Hampton Roads.

THE longshoremen's agreements in the Portland, Me., and Hampton Roads districts made on October 1, 1922, for the period of one year provided for a revision of the wage scale on April 1. The old and revised scales are as follows:

NEW AND OLD WAGE RATES FOR LONGSHOREMEN IN HAMPTON ROADS AND PORTLAND, ME.

Hampton Roads.

Kind of cargo handled.	Rate per hour.			
	Old scale (Oct. 1, 1922, to Mar. 31, 1923).		New scale (Apr. 1 to Sept. 30, 1923).	
	Straight time.	Overtime.	Straight time.	Overtime.
General cargo, including barrel oil when part of general cargo, also bulk cargo, ballast, and all coal cargoes, including bunker coal, except as specified under rate No. 2	$0.60	$0.90	$0.65	$0.97
Sulphur and steel dust in bulk or bags	.65	.95	.70	1.02
Wet hides	.75	1.05	.80	1.12
Screwing cotton and tobacco aboard ship. Frozen meats and other cargo in compartments under refrigeration	.80	1.10	.85	1.17
Explosives in stream.[1]	1.20	1.80	1.30	1.94

Portland, Me.

General cargo	$0.65	[2] $1.00	$0.70	[2] $1.07
Wet hides	.80	[2] 1.15	.85	[2] 1.22
Bulk cargo and nitrate	.70	[2] 1.05	.75	[2] 1.12
Grain in bulk	.85	[2] 1.30	.90	[2] 1.37
Refrigerated cargo (20° or lower)[3]	.75	1.10	.80	1.17
Wrecked or stranded vessels and fire jobs	[4] 1.30	[4] 2.00	[4] 1.40	[4] 2.14

[1] Except during meal hours on explosives in stream, when worked, $1.94 per hour (old rate $1.80).
[2] Exclusive of meal hours, 6 to 7 p. m., 12 midnight to 1 a. m., and 6 to 7 a. m., which are paid for at double time if work is done therein.
[3] Does not include cargo loaded in refrigerator boxes which have normal temperature.
[4] For Sundays and holidays the new rate is $2.14 per hour, an increase of 14 cents per hour over former rate. The rate for meal hours if worked is now $2.80, an increase of 20 cents over former rate.

Longshoremen and Tally Clerks—Boston, Mass.

THE longshoremen's agreements relative to the loading and unloading of ships and the tallying and checking of all cargo in the port of Boston were not renewed upon their expiration last October. The old rate remained in effect, however. The new agreements recently announced by the Shipping Board are effective for the six months' period from April 1 to September 30.

The revised agreement for the loading and unloading of ships provides for a joint permanent grievance committee of six members in addition to the arbitration committee, to be charged with the settlement of minor disputes. Upon their failure to settle the dispute it is to be referred to the arbitration committee. A joint committee is also to be apppointed to arrange for uniform truck loads that are to be mutually satisfactory.

The Boston loading scale is the same as that for Portland, Me., except that the rate for handling sugar and coffee is specified in the Boston scale. The rate for sugar is the same as that for handling refrigerated cargo; coffee is to be handled at the regular bulk cargo rate. Night work is to be regarded as overtime.

The old and new scales for tally clerks are as follows, the meal-time rate under the new scale being double rate instead of overtime rate,[1] as under the old scale.

OLD AND NEW WAGE RATES FOR TALLY CLERKS IN BOSTON, MASS.

Kind of rate.	Old scale.	New scale (Apr. 1 to Sept. 30, 1923).
Regular rate:		
Whole day	$5.00	$5.40
Half day or fraction thereof	2.50	2.70
Overtime rate	a 1.00	a 1.07
Sunday and holiday rate:		
Half day or fraction thereof	4.00	4.28
More than half a day	8.00	8.56
Rate on work on oranges, lemons, or grapes for over 2,000 packages:		
Whole day	6.00	6.40
Half day	3.00	3.20

a Per hour.

Unlicensed Deck and Engine Crews.

BY order effective May 14 a revised wage scale and schedule of working conditions went into effect for the unlicensed members of the deck and engine department crews of the United States Shipping Board Emergency Fleet Corporation vessels. The previous scale for these crews had been in effect since February 6, 1922. The wage scales for both deck and engine crews are increased by $7.50 or $10 per month. For wheelmen and lookout men the three-watch system is established by the following new clause:

At sea wheelmen and lookout men shall be divided into three watches. All men not standing regular watches may be required to perform 9 hours' work out of 24, as the master may direct.

[1] The meal hours, for which double time is paid if work is done therein, are from 6 to 7 a. m., 12 m. to 1 p. m., 6 to 7 p. m., and 12 midnight to 1 a. m.

This order made necessary authorization by the board to add two able seamen to the manning scale.

Hours of all men in the engine crews not standing regular watches are decreased from 10 to 9 within 24 hours. New differentials are created between firemen, oil burners, and firemen, coal burners, and between coal passers and wipers.

The new monthly scales, together with the superseded scales, follow:

OLD AND NEW WAGE RATES FOR FIREMEN, OILERS, AND WATER TENDERS AND FOR SAILORS ON EMERGENCY FLEET CORPORATION VESSELS.

Occupation.	Old scale (Feb. 6, 1922, to May 13, 1923).	New scale, effective May 14, 1923.	Occupation.	Old scale (Feb. 6, 1922, to May 13, 1923).	New scale, effective May 14, 1923.
Firemen, oilers, and water tenders.			*Sailors.*		
Deck engineer	$70.00	$80.00	Carpenter	$70.00	$80.00
Pump man	70.00	80.00	Carpenter's mate	60.00	70.00
Donkey man	65.00	75.00	Boatswain	65.00	75.00
Storekeeper	65.00	70.00	Boatswain's mate	60.00	70.00
Oiler	65.00	72.50	Quartermaster	60.00	70.00
Fireman, oil burner	57.50	65.00	Able seaman	55.00	62.50
Fireman, coal burner	57.50	67.50	Ordinary seaman	40.00	47.50
Coal passer	50.00	60.00	Storekeeper	60.00	70.00
Wiper	50.00	57.50			
Water tender	65.00	72.50			

Garment Industry—Cleveland.

THE continuing agreement in the Cleveland Ladies' Garment Industry [2] provides for a board of referees which shall determine points of difference between the International Ladies Garment Workers Union and the Cleveland garment manufacturers, parties to the agreement. The parties were unable to agree upon the scale to become effective May 1 and the board, which now consists of Mr. Morris L. Cooke, Mr. John R. McLane, and Mr. Jacob H. Hollander, made the decision.

By the terms of the award the differential between men and women operators was decreased from 37½ to 32 per cent.

The existing minimum weekly rates of $40 for men operators and $25 for women operators represent a differential of 37½ per cent, and it is contended that this is justified only if an average man will produce this much more than the average woman on similar work. This is in the main true, although we must recognize certain other factors, such as the far greater labor turnover among woman workers as affecting the relative value of men and women in a given employment. The data for determining the proper differential are so limited that we have only been able to reach a general conclusion to the effect that the present differential is probably too high and that we are justified now in decreasing it so far as the female operators are concerned in all branches of the industry to approximately 32 per cent. This change will be reflected in the new wage scale announced later in the decision.

The wage scale of December, 1919, is restored, with the exception of the additional increase for woman workers. The rates for female operators under the new scale are as follows: Cloak and suit industry, $30 per week; dress industry—female skilled operators, $30 per week; female sample makers, $28 per week; skirt industry, $28 per week.

[2] This agreement appeared in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for July, 1922, pp. 103–109.

The board also ordered that the classification of skilled operators now obtaining in the cloak industry into class A and class B be extended in like terms to the skilled operators in the dress industry employed subsequent to the award. The minimum rate for operators in class B is put at $26.

The union demand for change in the classifications between cutters, operators, pressers, and finishers for the purpose of standardizing rates of pay in all markets where the union is active the board denied.

The general classification adopted by the Hanover award has been amended in specific instances from time to time, usually when both sides have agreed that some discrepancy existed; but we should be very reluctant to enforce a wholesale revision without very clear evidence of the necessity for it. So far as standardizing the general wage scale is concerned, we must remember that our jurisdiction is limited to a small section of the industry. In 1918 we came to the conclusion that the greater continuity of employment afforded in the Cleveland market, differences in the cost of living, and the superior effectiveness of the Cleveland scale justified the differential which was established. We see no reason at this time to alter that conclusion.

Relative to the progressive installation of production standards the board says:

The measurement of production as expressed in quality and quantity standards of achievement for each individual worker is of the very essence of this agreement. The struggle to bring some degree of order out of the chaos of the earlier days has at times demanded of all those in interest forbearance and sacrifice of a very high order. The lack of definition as between jobs and the uncertainties as to classification has strained the arbitral system almost to the breaking point. But gradually a common language and a common understanding as to these complex and interrelated problems is coming into being. The areas of uncertainty and even of dispute are being narrowed. For the splendid spirit almost constantly displayed, recognition should be made.

But progress in the matter of production standards must be continuous. It is not those who start, but those who arrive who gain the rewards. Two avenues of development seem especially promising, and to them we invite the attention of the joint bureau [engaged in the installation of production standards]:

First. There should be more publicity as to the details of the methods by which standards of performance are arrived at. Proper methods can stand careful scrutiny. Both workers and employers are entitled to know in the utmost detail the methods under which time studies and other production determinations are made.

Second. There is fortunately general acceptance of the idea that each worker shall receive a wage proportionate to his effort and skill. But there are reasons for believing that not a few standards have been set in such a way as to permit earnings not closely related to performance. Perhaps this was to have been expected. But an aggressive and immediate attack on remaining inaccuracies is essential.

The possibility of the extension of the Cleveland arbitration machinery to other markets was discussed before the board. As to the advisability of such extension, it was the opinion of the board that:

It is impossible to review the history of this agreement during the years of its life with its accompaniments of uninterrupted production, greater business stability, improved working conditions, and reasonable regard for the public interest, without realizing that the experimental stage has been passed and that, thanks to the sincerity and cooperation of the parties in interest, an impressive exhibit has been given to the trade and to American industry in general of what may be accomplished in these directions. The board believes that the time has now come when an intelligent attempt to extend the principles of the Cleveland agreement to other producing centers may well be attended with beneficial results to the industry—both workers and employers—and to the public.

The scales made effective by this award follow:

WAGE SCALES IN CLEVELAND LADIES' GARMENT INDUSTRY, EFFECTIVE MAY 1, 1923.

Cloak and suit industry.

Occupation.	Rate for week workers.	Basic rate for piece workers.
Cutters, male:		
Pattern graders	$42.00	.....
Full skilled cutters	41.00	.....
Semiskilled cutters—		
After first year	39.00	.....
For first year	36.00	.....
Cloth and lining pilers	33.00	.....
Pilers	28.00	.....
Canvas and miscellaneous cutters	26.00	.....
Machine operators, male:		
Head tailors	44.00	.....
Skilled operators—		
Class A	44.00	$1.10
Class B	40.00	1.10
Semiskilled operators—		
Class A	36.00	1.00
Class B	32.00	1.00
Minor operators	30.00	.60
Machine operators, female:		
Skilled operators	30.00	.75
Semiskilled operators	28.00	.70
Minor operators—		
After second year	23.00	.....
After first year	21.00	.....
Special machine operators	21.00	.....
Sample tailors, male: Sample jacket tailors	40.00	.....
Pressers, male:		
All-around pressers	40.00	.....
Semiskilled pressers—		
After first year	38.00	1.10
For first year	35.00	1.10
Fore pressers—		
Class A	36.00	1.00
Class B	34.00	1.00
Part pressers	29.00	.....
Pressers, female:		
Fore pressers	28.50	.....
Part pressers—		
After second year	26.50	.....
After first year	23.00	.....
Hand sewers, male:		
Skilled	34.00	.80
Semiskilled	29.00	.65
Hand sewers, female:		
Skilled hand sewers—		
Class A	26.50	.70
Class B	23.00	.70
Semiskilled	21.50	.60
Button sewers	20.00	.....

Skirt industry.

Cutters, male:		
Pattern graders	$42.00	.....
Full skilled cutters	38.50	.....
Semiskilled cutters	35.00	.....
Pilers	33.00	.....
Machine operators, male:		
Head tailors	42.00	.....
Skilled operators	42.00	$1.10
Semiskilled operators	35.00	1.00
Minor operators	30.00	.70
Machine operators, female:		
Skilled operators	28.00	.70
Semiskilled operators	24.50	.65
Minor operators	21.00	.60
Sample tailors, male: Sample skirt tailors	32.00	.....
Sample tailors, female: Sample skirt tailors	28.00	.....
Pressers, male:		
All-around upper pressers	36.00	1.05
Fore pressers	32.00	.95
Machine pressers	32.00	.95
Part or piece pressers	26.50	.70
Hand sewers, female: Skirt finishers	20.00	.....

WAGE SCALES IN CLEVELAND LADIES' GARMENT INDUSTRY, EFFECTIVE MAY 1, 1923—Concluded.

Dress industry.

Occupation.	Rate for week workers.	Basic rate for piece workers.
Cutters, male:		
Pattern graders	$42.00	
Full skilled cutters	41.00	
Semiskilled cutters—		
After first year	39.00	
For the first year	36.00	
Pilers	33.00	
Machine operators, male:		
Skilled machine operators—		
Class A	44.00	$1.10
Class B	40.00	1.10
Semiskilled operators—		
After two years	36.00	1.00
After one year	30.00	1.00
Machine operators, female:		
Skilled operators—		
Class A	30.00	.75
Class B	26.00	
Semiskilled operators	24.00	.70
Minor operators	21.00	
Sample tailors, male: Sample dress tailors	35.00	
Sample makers, female: Sample makers	28.00	
Pressers, male:		
All-round top pressers	40.00	1.10
Semiskilled top pressers	35.00	1.00
Fore pressers	34.00	.95
Finished machine pressers	32.00	
Part machine pressers	29.00	
Pressers, female: Woman ironers	24.00	.65
Hand sewers, female: Minor hand sewers	20.00	

Trades in the cloak and suit, skirt or dress industries, not classified, in which the workers were receiving $20 and over per week, were increased $3 per week. Unclassified trades in which the workers were receiving under $20 per week were increased $2 per week.

The weekly rates for learners, for the first year, are as follows:

Men:	
First 6 weeks	$16
Next 4½ months	20
Next 6 months	23
Women:	
First 6 weeks	14
Next 4½ months	16
Next 3 months	18
Next 3 months	20

Thereafter the wages fixed for the particular class or grade of work in which he or she is engaged apply.

When any employee is advanced from one grade or one class of work to a higher grade or class, the first six weeks of such more advanced work shall be regarded as a trial period only, and shall be compensated at the same rate as that received by the employee immediately prior to the advance.

Men's Clothing Industry.

THE contracts in the men's clothing industry permitted of readjustment of the wage issue on or about May 1 in practically all of the larger markets, and of the discussion of the unemployment fund issue in Chicago, Rochester, and Baltimore.[3] Wage increases of about 10 per cent have been made in Boston, Rochester, New York, Chicago, Cleveland, Baltimore, Milwaukee, Indianapolis, and Cincinnati. Negotiations in Montreal and Philadelphia are still on.

Action on the unemployment fund issue was taken only in Chicago, where general principles for the establishment of an unemployment fund have been agreed upon and the details of the plan are now being worked out.

Boston.

IN Boston agreement was reached giving a 10 per cent increase to all workers receiving $40 per week or less, and a 5 per cent increase for all receiving over $40 per week, such increases being retroactive to May 1. Settlement for the cutters and trimmers who were not included in the settlement had, on June 1, not yet been concluded.

Rochester.

BY agreement between the Rochester Clothiers' Exchange and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, increases were granted affecting about 13,000 workers—an increase of 10 per cent for workers receiving less than $40 weekly, of $4 a week for workers earning $40 and over, and of $5.15 a week for off pressers, cutters, and tailors on coats. These increases are retroactive to May 1 and bring the base scale for cutters, off pressers, and similar skilled workers to $40 weekly. The minimum wage was increased from $12.75 to $14.

Baltimore.

AGREEMENTS reached between the Amalgamated Clothing Workers and individual men's clothing firms provide for increases of approximately 10 per cent. In some cases the increases were applied only to certain underpaid operatives.

New York.

IN New York City there are no written agreements. A general stoppage of more than 50,000 workers was called by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers on May 14 to check up the response to the unions' demands for general increases. The joint board of the children's clothing workers, the cutters, and the New York joint board (men's clothing industry) cooperated, making the stoppage general in all branches of the men's clothing industry. The workers in both the men's and the children's branches demanded increases of $4 per week—equivalent to an average 10 per cent increase for the whole market. All of the larger firms in the men's branch of the

[3] The contracts effective in the Baltimore, Cleveland, Chicago, and Rochester markets appeared in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for June, 1922, pp. 10-13.

industry, with the exception of one, are reported to have settled on the basis of the $4 increase (June 1). The children's jacket contractors were reported to have settled, but the knee pants shops were still out on June 1. Cutters in both branches of the industry received an increase in their minimum wage of $4 per week. Their weekly minimum wage at present is $55.

Cleveland.

THE agreement between the Cleveland Clothing Manufacturers' Association and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers expired February 28. The union demanded a flat 25 per cent increase in the wages of all workers in the shops of the association members. The employers refused and the matter was submitted to arbitration. Mr. Charles B. Barnes was chosen as arbitrator. His decision, handed down on March 24, became effective on April 1. The bases for the union demand were as follows:

First. That there is now throughout the entire country a general revival of business and increasing prosperity in nearly all lines of industry. This increasing prosperity is particularly strong in the Cleveland district and throughout the territory in which Cleveland clothing is sold.

Second. That the cost of living is still high and the probabilities are that it will increase, rather than decrease.

Third. That the present wages in this clothing market are inadequate. Since February, 1921, there have been two wage decreases in the market and also a change from week work to piecework, which change resulted in lower labor costs.

The manufacturers' association resisted the demands on the following grounds:

First. That while there has been an increase in the general business prosperity of the country, there has been no such increase in the price of clothing as would justify an increase in the wages of the workers. Wage increases to workers generally throughout the Cleveland district have not been such as will permit them to pay an increased price for clothing.

Second. That the firms in the manufacturers' association are what is known as "special order" houses and they have to enter into competition with clothing made under nonunion conditions, which competition is very severe.

Third. While the cost of living still continues high, there is also to be taken into consideration that the wages are comparatively high.

Fourth. That the Cleveland clothing market is a comparatively small market and no wage increase should be granted before or unless increases are granted in the larger clothing markets.

In making his decision the arbitrator gave special consideration to:

First. The general increase of industrial prosperity and the upward tendency of wages and prices.

Second. That the employers are under very active competition from the nonunion and other houses producing cheaper garments.

Third. That there have been two cuts in the wages of the tailors and also a change made from week work to piecework.

Fourth. That the cutters have received only one wage decrease and were not affected by the change from week work to piecework.

Fifth. That there is at present a considerable differential between the wage rates paid in the "special order" houses of Chicago and Cleveland. Further, that there are now pending demands for wage increases in the Chicago and other clothing markets of the country.

The decision awarded a flat increase of 10 per cent on all wages in the tailor shops and an increase of 7½ per cent to cutters (markers and choppers).

Chicago.

Wages.

IN Chicago the wage issue was submitted to an arbitration board consisting of Mr. William M. Leiserson, Mr. David Friday, and Mr. John R. Commons.

By their decision the wage level was raised to approximately the level of April, 1922, preceding the last two wage cuts. The exact percentage was not restored, the readjustments made in a number of sections making lower paid sections secure a relatively higher percentage of increase than those in more highly paid sections. The limit for off pressers working under quotas, who although pieceworkers were heretofore limited to approximately $42 a week, was raised to $47 per week. Tailors and bushelmen were raised $4 per week. Cutters, whose rates ranged from $39 to $47 per week according to production, were raised $4 per week.

The decision directed that a $4 increase be applied to the wages of trimmers and that their classification, which had not then been completed by the trimmers' commission, created to establish standards and classify the men, should be completed within four weeks of the date of the decision. Cloth examiners, spongers, and helpers the board found to be considerably underpaid as compared with other workers in similar occupations in the city and in the industry. Increases for these classes range from $3 to $5, as follows: Cloth examiners—$5 per week to those now receiving $34 and under; $4 per week to those now receiving over $34 and under $37; $3 per week to those now receiving $37 and over. Spongers—$5 per week to those now receiving $25 and under; $4 per week to those now receiving over $25 and under $33; $3 per week to those now receiving $33 and over. Helpers—$5 per week to those now receiving $22 and under; $4 per week to those now receiving over $22 and under $25; $3 per week to those now receiving $25 and over.

A general increase of $3 per week was applied to the wages of all other workers, provided that where $3 would amount to more than 10 per cent, the increase granted should be limited to 10 per cent.

The minimum wage was raised from $13.50 to $15 per week.

The board apparently based its decision upon present business prosperity, wage increases in other industries, and the rising cost of living. The decision became effective May 1.

Unemployment Insurance.

Following are the principles jointly agreed upon by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers and the Chicago Federation of Clothing Manufacturers which shall govern the establishment of an unemployment fund in the Chicago market. The details for the application of the plan are expected to be worked out by July 1. On the basis of the principles here set forth the arbitration board assumes that each party will contribute 1.5 per cent of the weekly wages. "The increases granted by the board have been fixed with the idea that the employer's contribution of 1.5 per cent will be in addition to the

specific increase granted in the decision, and the wage earner's 1.5 per cent will come out of his earnings, collection of these contributions to begin at the time this decision goes into effect."

The text of the agreement follows:

The undersigned in behalf of their respective principals agree in principle to the creation of an unemployment fund secured by equal contributions from the employer and the employees, and they will endeavor to negotiate an agreement for that purpose embodying the following provisions:

1. Assuming that agreements concerning an unmeployment fund are to be negotiated between the union and individual manufacturers, the union will secure such legal authorization as will give its officers full legal authority to act for the employees of the manufacturer in making agreements with the manufacturer creating an unemployment fund to which the employees and the manufacturer shall contribute equally.

2. The union will secure from individual employees authorization for the manufacturer to deduct the contribution of the employee from his weekly wage during the time for which the agreement runs. This authorization will include indemnity for the manufacturer against suit for the recovery of the amount so deducted.

3. It is agreed that in no event will the manufacturer be required to contribute more than the total amount contributed weekly by his employees or by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers as the case may be, and in no event more than 1.5 per cent of the weekly wage of each union employee.

4. The administration of the fund, both as to the investment and conservation thereof and as to its distribution, shall be vested in a board of trustees properly constituted in which the manufacturer and the union shall have equal representation, said board to have one or more neutral members.

5. In the securing and handling of necessary records, the keeping of necessary accounts and statistics, the paying of moneys to those employees who are claimants on the fund and in other administrative details, it is agreed that there shall be such a suitable division of duties between the representatives of the parties as will best promote the purposes of the fund.

6. Except for such amounts as are required for current payments, the fund shall be invested in securities of the United States Government.

7. The agreement concerning unemployment shall expire at the same time as the present trade agreement between the manufacturer and the union, namely, on April 30, 1925.

8. It is agreed that the agreement to be negotiated will embody suitable provisions for fixing limits upon the size to which the fund may accumulate.

9. It is agreed that the document legally creating an unemployment fund shall be so drafted that at the termination of the agreement and in the event of failure to renew, the trustees shall have the legal power and the duty to hold and dispose of the fund in such manner as will best carry out the spirit and purpose of the agreement, but in any event the fund shall never be used for any purpose which could be construed as enabling, aiding or encouraging either party to carry on labor warfare.

10. Provisions of like effect to those just set forth for dealing with the fund in case of failure to renew this agreement shall be drafted for disposing of the fund in case of the dissolution of the union, or the dissolution or going out of business of the manufacturer.

11. It is agreed that in the event that any laws are passed compelling the manufacturer to contribute to any State or Federal unemployment fund in behalf of the employees covered by the agreement which it is proposed to negotiate, the contributions of the manufacturer under said agreement shall be reduced in the amount which said manufacturer is compelled to contribute to said State or Federal unemployment fund. If the contribution the manufacturer is compelled to contribute to such State or Federal unemployment fund is equal to or greater than his contribution under this agreement, then the contribution provided for in this agreement shall cease.

12. In the event of the termination of the agreement on account of the passage of laws requiring the manufacturer to contribute to unemployment funds as above mentioned, any amounts in the fund shall be disposed of under legal provision of like effect to those set forth in section 9 for dealing with the fund in case of failure to renew the agreement.

13. It is agreed that the officers of the fund shall be located at some convenient neutral point.

14. It is agreed that benefit from the fund to be created shall begin not earlier than January 1, 1924, nor later than May 1, 1924, and no benefit shall be paid for unemployment prior to the date when benefit payment begins.

15. It is agreed that no employee coming under this arrangement shall be paid unemployment benefit until the expiration of one year from the beginning of employment. It is understood that like provisions will be made regarding withdrawals, transfers, and so on.

16. It is agreed that there shall be a waiting period of two weeks between the beginning of each period of unemployment and the receiving of benefits.

17. It is agreed that the rate of benefits shall be forty per cent of full time earnings, with $20 per week as maximum benefit for any employee.

18. It is agreed that suitable provisions will be made for adjusting short-time and overtime employment, and regulations for this purpose will be so worked out as to embody proper adjustment between unemployment and short-time employment.

19. It is agreed that no employee shall receive benefits for more than five weeks during the insurance year.

20. It is agreed that the benefit shall be paid only for involuntary unemployment and that no benefit shall be paid to an employee who voluntarily leaves his employment without cause or to an employee who is discharged for cause or who declines to accept suitable employment.

21. It is agreed that no benefit shall be paid for unemployment that directly or indirectly results from strikes, stoppages, or other cessation of work in violation of the trade agreement now in force between the manufacturer and the union.

22. In the expectation that an agreement legally embodying the above provisions can be promptly negotiated and executed, it is agreed that beginning with the first pay-roll week on or following May 1, 1923, the manufacturer will set aside, under the supervision of the board of arbitration, 1.5 per cent of the weekly earnings of each employee in so far as the union or the employee furnish him with legal authorization for so doing, and he will also set aside in his own behalf an amount equal to the amount legally set aside from the wages of his union employees.

23. As soon as a legal agreement providing for an unemployment fund is executed and the board of trustees, constituted as above set forth, is created, the manufacturer will pay over to said board of trustees the amounts set aside on his own behalf and on behalf of his employees as just set forth.

24. Beginning with the date on which an agreement providing for an unemployment fund as above set forth is legally executed, the manufacturer will continue to collect in each and every pay-roll period prior to April 30, 1925, 1.5 per cent of the weekly wages of each union employee as legally authorized, and pay the same to the aforementioned trustees of the unemployment fund. He will also pay in each and every pay-roll period from the date of the execution of such agreement up to April 30, 1925, an amount equal to the amount contributed by said union employees.

25. It is agreed that during the interim between May 1, 1923, and such time as a legal agreement providing for an unemployment fund may be executed, record will be so kept as to make possible the administration of the provisions above set forth.

26. In the event of failure to negotiate and execute a legal agreement creating an unemployment fund as above set forth prior to July 1, 1923, the funds set aside subsequent to May 1, 1923, as above stipulated, shall be used for the relief of unemployment among the union employees of the manufacturer during the period of the present wage agreement, that is to say, prior to April 30, 1925.

27. In the event of such failure to negotiate an agreement and in the further event of failure of the representatives of the manufacturer and of the union to agree upon the disposition of such funds as may have accumulated prior to such failure to agree, the issue shall be heard and determined by the board of arbitration.

28. The representative of the manufacturer and the representative of the union agree each to use his best efforts to work out details necessary to the efficient handling of an unemployment fund conforming to the requirements above set forth. They further agree to use their best efforts to secure the embodiment of such provisions in a legal agreement which will bring such fund into operation and to secure the acceptance of such legal agreement by their respective principals.

Milwaukee.

WAGE increases affecting the 1,500 members of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers in Milwaukee became effective May 6. Cutters, trimmers, and off pressers on coats are reported to have received a flat increase of $4 a week. Workers earning $20 per week or less received a flat increase of $2 per week. Workers earning from $20 to $30 were increased 10 per cent. Those earning more than $30 received a $3 increase. The minimum wage level was raised from $10 to $12.

Indianapolis.

THE Amalgamated Clothing Workers' agreement with the Kahn Tailoring Co. of Indianapolis, one of the largest of the western shops outside the Chicago district, has been renewed with an increase in wages on the same basis as the Chicago increase.

Cincinnati.

THE Advance (June 1) reports the conclusion of an agreement with four large Cincinnati shops, effective from May 11, 1922, to May 1, 1923, providing for a $3 increase for all workers earning more than $30 a week and an increase of 10 per cent for those who earn less than $30 per week. All-round tailors are raised in scale from $35 to $39 a week. Trimmers are raised from $36 to $40, and cutters from $41 to $45. Off pressers working on coats received a 10 per cent increase, with a maximum of $45 per week. The union has opened negotiations with other manufacturers with whom there has heretofore been no agreement.

Book and Job Printing—New York City.

THE agreements between the closed shop (Printers' League) branch of the New York Employing Printers' Association and various unions in the book and job branch of the New York printing industry, either expired or provided for possible wage changes by negotiation on or about January 1 of this year. Such agreements existed between the Employers' Association and Typographical Union No. 6; Printing Pressmen's Union No. 51; Printing Press Assistants' Union No. 23; Job Pressmen and Job Feeders' Union No. 1; Paper Cutters' Union No. 119; Paper Handlers' Union No. 1; Mailers' Union No. 6; and Bindery Women's Union No. 43. Agreements effecting increases were reached by negotiation in all cases except that of the Typographical Union, which went to arbitration.

The wage scale for printing pressmen was increased from $44 to $50 per week; press feeders and assistants were increased from $36.50 to $40.50, with a further increase to $42.50 on September 1. The scale for job pressmen and job press feeders was increased from $36 to $40 per week, with a further increase to $43 on September 1. The paper cutters formerly receiving $38 per week were increased to $42

on January 17 and will receive $44 on September 1. Paper handlers were increased from $31 to $33 per week and will receive $34 on September 1. Mailers were increased $2, and now receive $37 per week. Bindery women received an increase of $1.50, their rate now being $26 per week and a 6 per cent increase in piece rates.

Typographical Union No. 6 asked for an increase of $5 per week on the basic scales; the employers' association desired a $10 reduction. Conciliation failed and the matter was submitted to Judge Alfred J. Talley as arbitrator. By his decision the prevailing basic scales of $50 per week for day work, $53 per week for night work, and $56 for the third or "lobster" shift were retained until September 30, 1923.

New agreements were concluded with all unions except the Typographical Union, the mailers, and the bindery women, whose contracts do not expire until September 30. The revised contracts will expire on September 1, 1924.

In addition to the agreement setting forth wages, hours, and conditions of work, general arbitration contracts, providing for local arbitration with an impartial umpire in case of deadlock, are concluded between the employers' association and the local unions whose members are employed by them. Such agreements are made with the local unions, and are entered into by and with the consent of the international union with which the local is affiliated. The international union agrees to protect the employers' association in case of violation of the agreement. The general arbitration agreement between the Employing Printers' Association and the unions affiliated in the International Printing Pressmen's and Assistant's Union, providing for arbitration for the year 1923, follows in full:

SECTION 1. The league agrees to employ none but members of —— to do any work that comes under the jurisdiction of said union, provided that said union can and will at all times furnish upon requirement by a member or members of the league, sufficient competent men for the needs of such member or members of the league. It also being understood and agreed that in case of the failure of the union to furnish such number of competent workmen as may be required, then and then only, members of the league shall be privileged to secure necessary help elsewhere until such time as the union can furnish the help required, and it is further agreed by the league that it will do no work that comes under the jurisdiction of —— for any firm that does not employ members of said union, provided the union does not allow its members to do the same class of work in "open shops" unless by mutual consent.

SEC. 2. All members of the league shall be protected under this agreement by the union against walkouts, boycotts, or any other form of concerted interference with the peaceful operation of all departments coming under the jurisdiction of said union; and it is further provided that the league agrees with the union to arbitrate any and all differences that may arise under this agreement between the league and union, if those differences can not be first settled by conciliation.

SEC. 3. The league and the union hereby agree to enter into a scale contract for a set period fixing the wages, hours, and working conditions of members of the union employed by members of the league, which scale contract may be amended, extended, or abrogated in accordance with provisions therein expressed without in any way affecting any of the terms or conditions of this arbitration agreement, and this arbitration agreement may be altered, amended, or extended without affecting any of the terms or conditions of said scale contract. The wages, hours, and working conditions set forth in the scale contract will be inaugurated and maintained by both parties to this agreement; and said union further agrees that it will not allow any of its members to work for less wages or more hours than those set forth in said scale contract.

SEC. 4. All disputes arising over provisions in the scale contract shall be subject to arbitration under the provisions of this agreement if such disputes can not be adjusted through conciliation.

SEC. 5. Local union laws not affecting wages, hours, and working conditions and the laws of the —— union shall not be subject to the provisions of this agreement; provided, that the international or local laws enacted subsequent to the execution of the scale contract herein referred to shall not be effective during the life of such contract.

SEC. 6. All differences of opinion on any question arising under this agreement shall be submitted to the president of the union and the chairman of the conference committee of the league for conciliation, and if conciliation fails, then and at all times said differences shall be submitted to the joint conference committee.

SEC. 7. The joint conference committee shall be a standing committee and shall consist of five members and five alternates appointed by the league and a like number of members and alternates appointed by the union. This committee shall meet separately on the call of the chairman of each part for consultation and jointly by the call of the chairman of each committee, at such time and place as may be determined by them. Due notice in writing of such meeting shall be given all interested parties. A majority vote of each part of the committee shall be necessary to a decision.

SEC. 8 (*a*). The said joint conference committee must act within five full business days when its services are desired by either party to an appeal as above.

(*b*) The alternates may meet with the committee of the organization to which they belong, but shall not take part in the proceedings of the joint conference committee except as substitutes.

SEC. 9. When the joint conference committee renders a decision which is unsatisfactory to either side, or when it is unable to reach a decision within ten (10) full business days after the final submission of the case to said committee, then review by an arbitrator of any dispute involving the interpretation of the terms of the existing "wage scale and working conditions contract" and, in case of dispute over the renewal of the "wage scale and working conditions contract," before a board of three arbitrators to be appointed by mutual agreement, may be asked for by the dissatisfied party through appeal, provided written notice of appeal to the other party be given five full business days after decision has been rendered, and a written statement setting forth the grounds of the appeal is filed with the joint conference committee within ten full business days after the decision has been rendered.

SEC. 10. In the event it becomes necessary under this agreement to have an arbitrator or a board of three arbitrators he is or they are to be selected by a majority vote of each part of the joint conference committee. Should the conferees fail to agree on an arbitrator or on a board of three arbitrators within fifteen full business days, each side shall within five full business days select an arbitrator and the two so selected shall within five full business days select the third.

SEC. 11. The conditions obtaining before the initiation of the dispute shall remain in effect pending the findings of the joint conference committee or arbitrator.

SEC. 12. The following rules shall govern the joint conference committee in adjusting differences between parties to this agreement:

(*a*) It may demand duplicate typewritten statements of grievances.

(*b*) It may examine all parties involved in any differences referred to it for adjudication.

(*c*) It may employ such stenographer or clerks as may prove necessary to facilitate its business.

(*d*) It may require affidavit on any or all disputed points.

(*e*) It shall allow equal opportunity for presentation of evidence or argument.

(*f*) Its deliberations shall be conducted in executive session and the finding, whether unanimous or not, shall be signed by all members of the board in each instance, or shall be certified to by the chairman and secretary of the joint committee to the two parties to this agreement. A member of the joint conference committee may hand in a dissenting opinion to become a part of the records of the proceedings.

(*g*) In the event that either party to the dispute refuses to appear or present his case after due notice, it may be adjudicated and finding rendered in accordance with such evidence as may be in the possession of the committee.

(*h*) All evidence communicated to the committee in confidence shall be preserved inviolate and no record of such evidence shall be kept except for use on appeal, in which case such inviolability shall still be preserved.

(*i*) All expenses attendant upon the settlement of any appeal or hearing before the committee or arbitrator shall be borne by the party losing the appeal, or, in case of a compromise being reached, each party to the controversy shall bear half of the cost.

SEC. 13. In case the matter in dispute is finally referred to an arbitrator or to a board of three arbitrators both parties to the controversy shall appear personally

or by proxy, the proxy to be either a duly recognized member of either body in good standing or their accredited representatives or counsel and not of the legal profession; or may submit records and briefs, and may make oral or written arguments in support of their several contentions. They may submit an agreed statement of facts or a transcript of testimony properly certified to before a notary public by the stenographer taking the original evidence or depositions.

SEC. 14. Pending final decisions by the arbitrator, work, without interference and under existing conditions, shall continue in the office of the employing printer party to the case, and the award by said arbitration shall in all cases include a determination of the issues involved, covering the period between the raising of the issues and their final settlement; and any change or changes in the wage scale of employees may, at the discretion of the arbitrator, be made effective from the date the issues were first made.

SEC. 15. In the event that either party to the dispute refuses to accept and comply with the decision of the arbitrator, all aid and support to the firm or employer, or member or members of the union refusing such acceptance and compliance shall be withdrawn by both parties to this agreement. The act or acts of such employer or member of the union shall be publicly disavowed and the aggrieved party to this agreement shall be furnished by the other party thereto with an official document to such effect.

SEC. 16. It is further agreed that all employers holding membership in the league shall be accorded terms and conditions as good or better than those accorded employers who are not members of the league.

Book and Job Printing—Washington, D. C.

Typothetæ v. Typographical Union.

THE closed shop division of the Typothetæ of Washington and Columbia Typographical Union No. 101 were unable to agree upon the question of a new wage scale, effective November 1, 1922, and the wage question, together with disputes involving discharges, overtime pay, the arbitration of union laws, and the limitation of apprentices were submitted to Judge Fenton W. Booth, as arbitrator. His decision was handed down on March 31, 1923. The decision affects the book and job branch of the industry.

Arbitration of Union Laws.

The union proposed an amendment to the arbitration agreement to provide that local union laws and the laws of the International Typographical Union not affecting wages, hours, and working conditions should not be subject to arbitration. The Typothetæ held that all matters should be submitted to arbitration. It was the opinion of the arbitrator that:

If the proposal of the union is limited in its application to the mere local laws and the laws of the International Typographical Union having to do with procedure and disciplinary affairs concerning only the internal government of the respective organizations, it is not subject to attack. But if it may be construed to embrace rules and regulations now in existence, or hereafter made, which may be imposed upon the Typothetæ by a general provision in the contract, and which the Typothetæ in the employment of union labor would be bound to respect, it is subject to debate. * * * The Typothetæ ought not to be held to the observance of any law, the terms of which it knows not of; assuredly it ought not to be held responsible for rules and regulations in the making and promulgation of which it had no voice, if they are to be a part and parcel of its contract with the union.

He suggested the substitution of the following provision:

That the parties hereto will settle any and all differences affecting wages, working conditions, and shop practices, that may arise between the two parties in interest, under the terms and conditions of this contract, by conciliation, and if conciliation fails, by arbitration.

Wages.

The Typothetæ presented seven arguments for a 10 per cent reduction in wages, as follows: (1) The decline in the cost of living; (2) peak wages of war times are still in effect; (3) wages in competitive cities; (4) economic depression the industry has endured; (5) increased cost of production because of introduction in 1921 of the 44-hour week; (6) wages in other branches of the industry in Washington; (7) the public demand for a reduction in prices.

The arbitrator found the mass of evidence relative to the rise and decline in the cost of living conflicting, contradictory, and irreconcilable.

I do not challenge the correctness of the computations and reports put forth, predicated upon such a hypothesis as must be arbitrarily adopted in order that they may reflect some degree of accuracy, but I would be absolutely unwilling to rest my right to compensation upon testimony so widely variant, and which, upon its face, at best, simply indicates a sporadic change, a shifting and uncertain condition of affairs, with no assurance of stability, and no reliable basis for prophesy.

He therefore decided that the householder is the safest barometer.

I inquired of at least 150 people, rich and poor alike, and never once did I receive an answer that any appreciable decline in the cost of living in Washington had taken place, and they spoke from experience, with no knowledge that I was at all interested in the elicited information.

The argument that war-time wages are still in effect the arbitrator accepted, but added that a "most limited excursion into the field of other classes of labor than printing would convince the most skeptical that war-time wages are not only prevailing in Washington but in many instances higher rates are being paid."

The arbitrator asserted that he could not conscientiously assent to a reduction in the wage scale on the ground of the industrial depression the industry has endured, unless it was positively proven that such general conditions directly affected the various individual firms or corporations represented by the Typothetæ, and continued to affect them up to the time the decision was made.

The employers argued that the wage scale so materially increased the cost of production that the industry lost a large amount of printing to near-by cities, particularly Baltimore and Richmond, where lower costs obtained.

The arbitrator took the position that if differences in the wage scale determined the amount of work received, Richmond, not Baltimore, would be the chief competitor of Washington, because the Richmond scale was lower. But such was not the case. Furthermore, 90 per cent of the book and job employers in Washington employed union labor at exactly the same scale of wages, and yet the keenest competition prevailed and no uniform price for output was established.

Conceding the cost of labor its full proportionate place in the total cost of a productive hour, may it be said in this case that the comparatively small difference

between the minimum scale paid in Baltimore and that paid in Washington, if equalized, would enable the Typothetæ to withstand the industrial incursions of a large and tremendously developed industrial city like Baltimore, reaching out at all times with the advantage of capital and volume of business, to keep what it has and acquire more.

The arbitrator concluded that although low wages necessarily reduce the cost of production and that cost of production is of vital importance in competition, nevertheless a comparatively slight difference in a wage scale is not such a material factor as to establish a serious handicap in this respect. "There are many other things to be considered aside from discrepancies in labor costs."

The 44-hour week issue, the arbitrator considered a consummated and closed status, made so by mutual consent, and in no way involved in the proceeding upon its merits. He stated, however, that it had been a factor in fixing the minimum wage scale, for its adoption added to the hourly cost of production and materially increased the overhead expenses.

Wages of craftsmen in other branches of the printing trade, the arbitrator decided, bear only indirectly on the issue. Such craftsmen may be over or under paid.

As to the argument that the public demands a reduction in prices, the arbitrator concluded:

> I am willing to concede that the public generally would welcome a substantial reduction in most everything they must buy. It may well be that a substantial reduction in wages generally will facilitate the desired end; but I am not prepared to say that the wage scale is alone responsible for enhanced prices.

With respect to the union arguments relative to the wage issue the arbitrator stated:

> The arbitrator will not enter into a long discussion as to the union's claim for a substantial increase of wages, not because it is unimportant, but for the reason that I do not think the record warrants its allowance. The Typothetæ at present is carrying, in wage scales, all that the industry should be burdened with. It ought not, in these days of rapid change and uncertain status of trade, be compelled to do more. In New York, the union does not receive the newspaper scale; nor has a single instance been cited in the record where the newspaper scale has been paid. It seems to me that it is more than impracticable to assimilate the conditions in the two trades, both with respect to the work required and the ability of the proprietors to pay.

While convinced that the prevailing scale of $42 per week for day work, and $47.25 for night work, was not beyond the limit of an ordinary livelihood under existing conditions, the arbitrator was also convinced that an increase in the scale was unwarranted. His decision therefore retained the status quo.

Discharges.

The Typothetæ objected to the clause in the agreement giving to foremen alone the right to employ and to discharge journeymen. The arbitrator said:

> An analysis [of the disputed section] undoubtedly subordinates the proprietors of the printing establishments operated as closed shops to the foremen of said shops, with respect to employment and discharge of journeymen. The foreman, it is true, is circumscribed in many respects in the discharge of conferred functions; but the clause itself is manifestly unilateral, intended to, and does maintain a working policy approved by the union. The foreman, and he alone, is to exercise discretion as to the competency, neglect of duty, and violation of office rules. In this respect his judgment is supreme. He may also decrease the force in a prescribed manner, and to no one need he give reasons therefor, save to the discharged employee. Why he should

be compelled to give this notice is not expressed, for no means of redress is provided in the event of arbitrary or unjust action. The authority thus conferred, to the ordinary layman, is most unusual, and yet is not to be swept aside for that reason. The provision erects a standard obviously designed to withdraw from the employers all right of determination in the matters mentioned and to leave the employee in relation to his employer responsible for his ability and conduct to the foreman exclusively. The union asserts that the intent and purpose of this provision is to assure permanency to the employee, put his position beyond the danger of release or discharge without reason, encourage the employee to marry and acquire a home, because assured of work so long as he conforms to rules, etc., and result therefore not only in distinct advantage to the employer, but the nation as well. Again, it is urged that no serious friction has resulted from the enforcement, and it is the result of years and years of deliberation and consideration.

No reasonable person may object to rules or regulations which assure to an employee fair and equitable treatment, especially when large bodies of men are to be employed in a given industry. If I correctly apprehend the purposes of collective negotiation, that is one of the benefits, but may it be said that the designed purpose will be accomplished if you so provide that one party to the contract is possessed with all of the power and authority, and the other denied a voice or participation in enacting the standards which shall govern?

If the terms of the rules are primarily intended to bring about mutual contentment of the parties in this instance it has failed, for the Typothetæ objects to its enforcement. The union observes that the section objected to maintains on a just basis the contractual relationship of the parties, and provides a certain and just method of adjusting complaints and regulating discipline. The union says we deal not so much with the individual proprietors as with the organized Typothetæ, and all complaints are received by and the notices given through the organization's representative of the parties, and are settled and adjusted in this way. The office, it is said, is represented by the foreman and the employees by the chapel chairman, the latter being a special representative of the union charged with the duty of seeing that the contract is observed, and to receive and make known complaints or violations of the contract and working rules and regulations. The chapel chairman, as a rule, reports to the secretary of the union and he in turn brings the matter to the attention of the chairman of the industrial relations committee of the Typothetæ, the foreman, being in exclusive control of the working office force, reports the necessity for overtime work, etc., to the chapel chairman.

From the foregoing, the conclusion is irresistible that the proprietor is absolutely excluded from participating in the adopted procedure until the trouble has reached an issue and no method provided by which the proprietor may assert any degree of domination over his employees, except he may discharge the foreman.

The inherent difficulty in the rule and procedure adopted lies in the fact that while the foreman is responsible for the conduct of his office, he is responsible to the proprietor of the plant for the same, and the proprietor in turn is responsible for the enterprise as a whole, and upon him depends in some measure the burden of making it a success and procuring the funds to maintain the pay roll. The obligations are in many respects mutual and being so, cooperation is essential.

The proprietor agrees to employ union labor, and no other. He assents to all reasonable rules and regulations, and it seems to me, that it may result in injustice of a serious nature to bind the proprietor to such rigid provisions, tending to deprive him of all voice in the employment and discharge of his employees, when under the very terms of his contract he is precluded from doing any serious injury to the class he engages to hire.

The arbitrator suggested that the following proviso be added, reserving to the employer the right to exercise his judgment in all cases where he might not approve the action of the foreman:

That before exercising any of the powers and authority conveyed by this section, the foreman shall report the contemplated action to the proprietor, or person in authority in said plant, and in his absence to such person or agent as he may designate to act for him, who shall have the authority to approve or disapprove the action of the foreman as aforesaid, and substitute therefor any action which to him may seem wise and expedient. In the event of disapproval of the foreman's actions and a substitute order therefor being given, it shall be the duty of the foreman to carry the same into effect. All journeymen discharged shall be entitled to receive the reasons therefor in writing, if requested.

Overtime Pay.

The Typothetæ argued for a leeway of four hours' overtime on Saturday at the regular minimum rates of pay. The union wanted Saturday afternoon made a holiday with double pay. Both these requests were denied, the employers' request on the ground that their claim would in effect abrogate the 44-hour week, the union's request on the ground that since the parties had agreed that 44 hours should constitute a week's work, if the worker is required to work on Saturday afternoon he is performing overtime labor and should be paid the regular overtime rate.

The union's request that Inauguration Day be considered a holiday was denied.

Apprentices.

The agreement provided for the limitation of the number of apprentices in any office under union jurisdiction to five.

The Typothetæ contended for the ratio of one apprentice to four journeymen or major part thereof. The union argued that only a sufficient number of apprentices should be allowed to assure their proper training, thereby maintaining the industrial efficiency of the craftsmen. The arbitrator granted the request of the employers for the reason, in part at least, that there was a shortage of printers in Washington.

To what extent the doors of opportunity to learn a trade should be closed, is a matter worthy of deliberate and intelligent consideration. From a selfish standpoint, it is manifest that in so far as supply may be curtailed, the remuneration of the available will be increased and the converse of this statement inures to the benefit of the employer. May, however, the rights of the persons seeking admission to the trade be entirely ignored? It takes, under the regulations now in force, five years for an apprentice to attain the status where he may enter into competition with the proficient journeyman, and without claiming any special knowledge upon the subject, it seems almost incredible that an employer would unduly take on an abnormal number of young women or men in the apprentice class, when the range of tasks to be performed is limited in such a way as to restrain the execution of any duties aside from those that are adapted to teach the apprentice the trade.

That the services of an apprentice in its inception is not of special value to the employer is indicated in the wage prescribed. Of course, as he progresses, he becomes more or less an asset, but aside from all this, the union by wise and restraining provisions maps out a line of instruction, predicated upon experience, the Typothetæ enters no protest against its wisdom, but accepts the course prescribed and agrees to follow it, objecting only to the additional reservation as to the number who may avail themselves of the course and unless it may be made to appear by some positive argument that additional limitations are requisite to the continuation of sound economic policy, considering also the welfare of the parties involved, it is, in the humble judgment of the arbitrator, fundamentally wrong to construct too many obstacles to entrance into the trade and deflect therefrom too many aspiring and ambitious apprentices anxious to learn it.

This conclusion is rested upon what the arbitrator believes to be the present limitations set forth in the general regulations on the subject. Without them it would be different.

Believing that in all associations, either personal, or contractual, the parties may, in the great majority of instances, be relied upon to exercise an honest and reasonable judgment, inspired by no other motive than righteous and equitable conduct, I do not apprehend any serious results to the union in setting aside this section; nor any vast or unusual benefits to the employers. This record and the conduct of the parties to this controversy, in both oral and written arguments, removes, in my judgment all danger of abuse of the enlarged privileges conferred by the decision upon this subject.

Press Feeders and Assistants.

THE decision of Mr. James L. Wilmeth in the case of the Washington Press Feeders and Assistants' Union No. 42 versus the Typothetæ of Washington, D. C., closed shop division, which became effective May 1, 1923, was as follows:

Based upon the facts and arguments submitted, covering the wage scale, and my own investigation as to the wages of feeders in this zone and other zones; the cost of living, the condition of business and the industry, and the duties involved it is my decision:

1. That the request of the Washington Press Feeders' and Assistants' Union, No. 42, for an increase of 20 per cent for platen press feeders and an increase of 15 per cent for cylinder press feeders and automatic operators must be denied:

2. That the request of the Washington Typothetæ (Inc.), closed shop division, that a decrease of 10 per cent in the hourly wages of cylinder feeders must be denied.

3. That the Washington Press Feeders' and Assistants' Union, No. 42, be granted the following increases: Cylinder press feeders and assistants from $28.50 per week to $30; job press feeders from $18.05 per week to $19.

4. That this decision shall take effect the first day of the first pay roll week following the date hereof.

5. That a continuing contract shall be negotiated and entered into in which there shall be incorporated a provision for the opening of the wage scale by either of the parties hereto upon 30 days' notice, at any 6 months' period after and following May 1, 1923.

Collective Agreements in Sweden, 1922.

ACCORDING to the reports received by the Swedish Labor Bureau (*Socialstyrelsen*),[1] 1,416 collective agreements affecting 9,941 employers and 279,772 employees were concluded in Sweden during 1922. At the end of 1922 there were 1,762 agreements affecting 10,923 employers and 312,765 employees, as against 1,876, 11,105, and 348,675, respectively, at the end of 1921.

The 1922 agreements in general show considerable wage reductions from 1921. These reductions were not all made at one time, however, the agreements providing for successive wage reductions. Wage reductions ranged from 20 to 45 per cent for the different industries from 1920 until end of 1922.

All but 120 agreements, affecting 27,356 workers, contain provisions regarding overtime. With regard to vacations, 996 agreements, affecting 215,733 workers, or about 77 per cent of the total number of workers, contain regulations as to vacations, while 420 agreements, affecting 64,039 workers, do not provide for vacations.

[1] Sweden. Socialstyrelsen. Kollektivavtal i Sverige ar 1922. Stockholm, 1923. Sveriges Officiella Statistik. Socialstatistik.

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

Share of Wage-Earning Women in Family Support.

UNDER this title the Women's Bureau of the Department of Labor has recently issued a study (Bulletin No. 30) dealing with the part played by women in family support. In industry the theory still prevails that a man has dependents to support and that a woman has not, and most of the arguments concerning what wage a woman should receive are at least colored by the assumption that she has only her own expenses to provide for, and frequently not all of those. Is this really the case? And how does the woman's situation in these matters compare with the man's? These questions, it is pointed out, are of importance quite apart from their bearing upon what wage a woman should receive.

It should be recognized that the issue is a broader one than simply the determination of the necessary expenses which must be met by the average woman wage earner. What does the woman wage earner mean to the economic status of the family? Should she be considered as an individual or are her economic well-being and success merged with the well-being and social significance of the family? How does her standing in the family as a wage earner and as a contributor compare with that of men who are recognized as having more than individual importance in this regard? These are fundamental questions, the answers to which will have a far-reaching influence on the recognition of woman's share in the economic life of the family.

The bulletin consists of three parts: The report of an investigation conducted by the Women's Bureau, a compilation of material collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in its cost-of-living studies, and a discussion of data brought together from a number of studies in which the family contributions of women have been touched upon.

The study of the Women's Bureau was made among shoe workers in Manchester, N. H., during the months of March, April, May, and June, 1920. Five establishments were covered. When full information had been secured from a given worker, an effort was made to secure data concerning other wage earners in the same family whether employed in the same establishment or elsewhere. The persons interviewed, who form the nucleus of the study, numbered 1,481, and pay-roll records covering the earnings of other members of their families were secured for 740 additional persons. The group is believed to be a fairly representative one. Of those reporting their birthplaces, 57 per cent were born in the United States, 25 per cent in Canada, and the rest were scattered through a number of nationalities, Greeks predominating. The age level was lower than that prevailing in industry generally, 40.4 per cent of the men and 58.2 per cent of the women being under 25, and only 21.6 per cent of the men and 11 per cent of the women being 40 or over. The percentage distribution by conjugal conditions was as follows:

	Men.	Women.
Single	44.1	70.2
Married	53.4	23.1
Widowed, separated, or divorced	2.5	6.8

The greater proportion of the married among the men is accounted for in part, but only in part, by their higher age level. Since the wife is mainly responsible for the management and work of the home, the

presumption is that she will not, under ordinary circumstances, add industrial employment to this, and it is rather surprising to find that so large a proportion—over one-fifth—of those studied were married.

Naturally the married, whether men or women, lived almost without exception at home, but a comparison in this respect of the single shows an unexpected condition. The unmarried included 531 men and 602 women; of these, 88.7 per cent of the men and 87.9 per cent of the women lived at home. In other words, whatever effect "living at home" may legitimately exert on wages should, according to these figures, be displayed impartially in regard to single men and women alike, for the proportions thus living are practically identical.

The question of the extent to which others were dependent upon these wage earners is frankly put aside on the ground that it is impossible in many instances to secure a satisfactory answer. When there is only one wage earner, the matter may perhaps be easily settled, but that was not generally the case.

The question of responsibility toward the home for these men and women resolves itself into a complicated situation of joint responsibility for the upkeep of the home and the support of others by several wage earners. It was not usually a question of the entire support of others; only 3.2 per cent of the women and 31.2 per cent of the men were found to be carrying alone the economic responsibilities of the family. But everyone was contributing something to the family of which he or she was an integral part.

The effort to measure the relative response of men and women toward this joint responsibility, it is pointed out, is complicated by the dual aspect of the share they take in the family maintenance.

It is this joint responsibility which is particularly difficult to measure, and yet which must be measured if the relative importance of men and women in this regard is to be estimated. There are two possible measures which can be used for the contribution toward the family support. One is the proportion and the other is the actual amount of earnings contributed. The former has its main significance in the psychological attitude of the contributor; the latter in the actual value, economically speaking, of the contribution.

Taking up the proportion contributed, it appears that the relationship to the family has a most important bearing upon this. Practically all the married wage earners, whether men or women, turned in all their earnings toward the family expenses, and this no matter whether the earnings were large or small. So far as this group is typical, it can be said that the married worker responds to the claim of the family upon him or her to the extent of individual capacity. But in the large group of single men and women living at home, the situation is very different, 59.9 per cent of the daughters, as against 34.6 per cent of the sons turning in everything they earn. In the small group who had some other than a filial relation, such as brothers and sisters, nieces and nephews, and so on, the proportions are almost identical, 21.1 per cent of the women and 20 per cent of the men turning in the whole of their earnings. However, since married wage earners usually contribute all their earnings, and since a much larger proportion of the men than of the women were married, the proportion of those contributing everything is larger in the total group of men than in the total group of women, though the difference is not great—69.5 per cent of the men to 67.9 per cent of the women living at home.

When the actual cash value of the contributions is considered, those of the men considerably exceeded those of the women, 89.1 per

cent of the men against 80.7 per cent of the women turning in $10 or more per week, and the relative proportion of the men growing much larger as the higher contributions are reached. Thus, 57.1 per cent of the men, against 9.9 per cent of the women, make weekly contributions of $20 or more. This difference is closely connected with the difference in earnings, the women's being much lower than the men's. The question of relationship also seems to play a part.

A larger proportion of men than of women contributed all their earnings, and a larger proportion of men than of women contributed more than $10 a week. However, when the two factors which mainly qualify contributions are considered—earnings and family relationship—the findings are quite different. Although the men contributed much larger amounts, in relation to the size of their earnings, the contributions of the two sexes were of practically the same proportion. In every group of men and women earning from $13 to $20 a week there was a larger proportion of women than of men who contributed all earnings. On the other hand, in the highest earnings ($25 and over) a very much larger proportion of men contributed all earnings, but there were practically no women in this group, and the great majority of the men were husbands and fathers who contributed all they made to the support of their families.

The studies on which the second and third parts of the report are based were not made with a view to determining the contributions of women to the family budget, and such information as they contain on this point is mainly incidental. Nevertheless, in a general way they bear out the findings of the Manchester study. In the study into cost of living conducted by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, although a special effort was made to secure families in which the husband and father was the main support, and although no account was taken of any other wage earners unless they contributed all their earnings to the family budget, it was found that in a group of 12,096 white families 8.9 per cent had income derived from the wife and 18. 6 per cent of these families had income from children. In these families, of the children aged 16 or over, 95.6 per cent of the sons and 85.9 per cent of the daughters were gainfully employed, contributing all their earnings to the family fund. In other words, among these families it was almost as much a matter of course for the daughters to become wage earners and to aid in the family support as for the sons.

The other investigations considered vary widely in the number included and the data gathered, so that it is difficult to get from them comparable facts. They tend, however, to confirm the above findings, showing that the married women were not generally employed unless the family need was great, but that the single women were very commonly wage earners and important contributors to the family resources. Reviewing all the studies considered, one conclusion is regarded as inescapable:

It is that in general women are wage earners not only for their own entire support but to meet a very definite responsibility as sharers in the support of others or the maintenance of higher standards of living in their families. The burden of responsibility assumed by women is very different from that of men. It is older people who look to women for assistance and support, and usually there is no alternative for the wage-earning woman who falls heir to responsibilities not of her own choosing. On the other hand, the man is usually responsible for a young and rising generation, whose support he has undertaken deliberately and whose burden becomes lighter as the years advance. These differences are natural and unavoidable, but they emphasize the necessity for a clearer understanding and a more equitable valuation of the wage-earning woman as an economic factor in the family.

Employment of Women in the German Textile Industry.

THE following is quoted from the April 6, 1923, issue of Industrial and Labor Information, published by the International Labor Office (Geneva):

The German Textile Workers' Union (*Deutscher Textilarbeiter-Verband*), which has a total membership of 728,342, two-thirds of whom are women, recently instituted an inquiry concerning the position of women in the textile industry. The main object of the inquiry was to meet the attacks made on the 8-hour day and the 46-hour week which is usual in this industry.

As far back as 1907, the date of the last industrial census, more than half (51.2 per cent) of the members of the textile workers' union were women and girls. The proportion is now two-thirds. As all married women have household duties in addition to their industrial occupation, it is necessary that they should have, on at least one day of the week, sufficient free time to attend to such household work as can not be done in the morning or evening before or after working hours.

The inquiry aimed at ascertaining (1) the number of textile undertakings in Germany, classified according to size, and the number of workers employed, classified according to sex and age (adults and young persons under 16); (2) the number of married women employed in the textile undertakings covered by the inquiry, including widows and women divorced or living apart from their husbands; (3) the economic position of the married women in the industry (age, number of children, reason for undertaking industrial work, husband's occupation), and other particulars.

Number of textile undertakings and number of persons employed.—The union was unable with the means at its disposal to include all textile undertakings in the inquiry. Every effort was made, however, to make it as comprehensive as possible and members of all unions and workers not belonging to any union were included among the workers covered by the inquiry. Home work undertakings were excluded, and only a small number of undertakings employing from 1 to 5 workers were included, because in many cases the workers employed in these undertakings are all members of the family of the owner.

The total number of undertakings covered by the inquiry was 8,999, employing 805,127 workers—300,976 men (37.4 per cent) and 504,151 women (62.6 per cent). The proportion of woman workers is lower than would appear from the trade-union membership figures. This is due to the fact that the trade-union figures include home workers, who are almost all women.

The total number of textile undertakings with more than 200 workers has increased considerably in recent years; according to the inquiry there are 965 such undertakings, employing in all 474,966 workers. The corresponding figure for 1907 was 917 for the same area, i. e., excluding Alsace-Lorraine.

Number of married women.—The number of married women employed in the textile industry has increased proportionately more than the number of women in general. According to the 1907 figures 20 per cent of all women workers in the textile industry were married.

The recent inquiry, however, shows that one-third of the woman workers in the industry are or have been married. Of the married women, 57.4 per cent had children of school age (51.1 per cent had one child, 28.4 per cent two children, 13 per cent three children, and 7.6 per cent four or more children).

Reason for taking up industrial employment.—The chief reason given for the entry of married women into industry was that the husband's earnings were insufficient.

The total number of women in the industry who were the sole wage earners of the household, i. e., widows or women divorced or living apart from their husbands, was 13,581, or 29.5 per cent.

The results of the inquiry may be summed up as follows:

1. The majority of the workers employed in the textile industry are women.
2. The majority of these women are married.
3. The married women have household duties in addition to their work in the factory.
4. More than half of the married women have children of school age to look after.

The Textile Workers' Union insists that in the regulation of hours of employment and other labor conditions these facts should be taken into consideration, and that steps should be taken to prevent injury to the health of women owing to excessive work in the factory and in the home, injury which endangers the health of the next generation.

The union considers that the results of the inquiry show the impossibility of increasing hours of work beyond 8 per day and indeed indicate the urgent necessity of a further reduction.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT.

Convention of Public Employment Services, 1923.

THE eleventh annual meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services will be held at Toronto, Canada, September 4 to 7, 1923. Arrangements for the program are not yet completed, but among the expected speakers are Hon. E. J. Henning, Assistant Secretary of the United States Department of Labor, who is the president of the association, Hon. Francis I. Jones, Director General of the United States Employment Service, and Hon. Ethelbert Stewart, United States Commissioner of Labor Statistics.

Employment in Selected Industries in May, 1923.

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics received and tabulated reports concerning the volume of employment in May, 1923, from 6,075 representative establishments in 47 manufacturing industries, covering 2,249,425 employees, whose total earnings during one week amounted to $60,219,175.

Identical establishments in April reported 2,242,500 employees and total pay rolls of $57,847,236. Therefore in May, as shown from these unweighted figures for 47 industries combined, there was an increase over April of 0.3 per cent in the number of employees, an increase of 4.1 per cent in total amount paid in wages, and an increase of 3.8 per cent in the average weekly earnings.

The general increase in rates of wages reported by 800 establishments in April was continued in May, when 1,279 establishments, or over 20 per cent of the total here considered, reported increases in rates. The industries most affected were foundry and machine-shop products, iron and steel, woolen goods, cotton goods, brick and tile, and lumber. The average increase was 10.4 per cent, affecting 88 per cent of the employees in the establishments concerned and 25 per cent of the entire number in all establishments covered.

Increases in the number of employees in May as compared with employees in identical establishments in April are shown in 20 of the 47 industries, the greatest being 6 per cent in chewing and smoking tobacco, 4.2 per cent in brick and tile, and 3.9 per cent in petroleum refining. Iron and steel, sawmills, pottery, rubber boots and shoes, cement, chemicals, glass, and slaughtering and meat packing show increases varying from 2 to 3.5 per cent.

The fertilizer industry, with its season practically ended, declined 26.5 per cent in employment, while women's clothing followed with 7.1 per cent, millinery and lace goods with 4.3 per cent, and leather with a 3.9 per cent decrease. Boots and shoes, not including rubber, agricultural implements, sugar refining, stamped and enameled ware, book and job printing, flour, and steel shipbuilding, show decreases in employment ranging from 2.1 per cent to 3.2 per cent.

The iron and steel industry leads in increased pay-roll totals with 13.1 per cent, owing to a combination of an average of 10.3 per cent wage increase to 63.7 per cent of all employees covered, an increase of

2.5 per cent in full-time operation, and doubtless some increased tonnage. Brick and tile increased 11.3 per cent, woolen goods 11.1 per cent, slaughtering and meat packing 10.4 per cent, carpets 8.2 per cent, cotton goods 6.9 per cent, and sawmills 6.7 per cent. Steel shipbuilding, hardware, and baking show increased pay-roll totals of 6.6, 5.7, and 5.6 per cent, respectively.

Fertilizers and women's clothing show the largest percentage decreases in pay rolls, 18.4 and 13.1 per cent, respectively.

For convenient reference the latest figures available relating to all employees on Class 1 railroads, drawn from Interstate Commerce reports, are given at the foot of the first and second tables.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS DURING ONE WEEK IN APRIL AND MAY, 1923.

Industry.	Establishments reporting both months.	Number on pay roll in one week.		Per cent of change.	Amount of pay roll in one week.		Per cent of change.
		April, 1923.	May, 1923.		April, 1923.	May, 1923.	
Agricultural implements	59	22,767	22,278	−2.1	$597,494	$602,046	+0.8
Automobiles	174	255,463	259,041	+1.4	8,620,040	8,772,544	+1.8
Automobile tires	71	48,105	47,321	−1.6	1,528,402	1,482,636	−3.0
Baking	239	30,903	31,081	+.6	779,425	822,902	+5.6
Boots and shoes, not including rubber	165	90,347	88,450	−2.1	2,058,367	2,007,727	−2.5
Boots and shoes, rubber	3	1,299	1,334	+2.7	27,633	28,860	+4.4
Brick and tile	287	21,594	22,504	+4.2	520,738	579,487	+11.3
Car building and repairing, railroad	194	136,064	137,097	+.8	3,903,805	4,042,724	+3.6
Carpets	25	21,243	21,267	+.1	551,301	596,269	+8.2
Carriages and wagons	36	2,631	2,604	−1.0	60,487	61,661	+1.9
Cement	53	11,250	11,610	+3.2	301,244	314,075	+4.3
Chemicals	98	20,837	21,521	+3.3	534,666	556,292	+4.0
Clothing, men's	178	50,301	49,899	−.8	1,309,880	1,347,867	+2.9
Clothing, women's	160	16,693	15,508	−7.1	434,680	377,737	−13.1
Confectionery and ice cream	38	1,952	1,940	−.6	31,597	32,862	+4.0
Cotton goods	248	177,658	177,535	−.1	3,113,167	3,328,414	+6.9
Dyeing and finishing textiles	62	26,699	26,354	−1.3	619,227	643,072	+3.9
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	111	89,990	90,032	(1)	2,425,277	2,534,365	+4.5
Fertilizers	109	10,187	7,484	−26.5	182,739	149,139	−18.4
Flour	244	12,039	11,749	−2.4	299,027	297,247	−.6
Foundry and machine-shop products	399	144,708	145,597	+.6	4,199,287	4,348,351	+3.5
Furniture	249	39,638	39,348	−.7	910,659	907,554	−.3
Glass	103	30,898	31,952	+3.4	775,113	791,084	+2.1
Hardware	30	20,346	19,938	−2.0	485,121	512,986	+5.7
Hosiery and knit goods	222	75,468	75,409	−.1	1,236,097	1,260,450	+2.0
Iron and steel	175	236,570	241,351	+2.0	6,563,732	7,421,957	+13.1
Leather	121	27,500	26,426	−3.9	664,465	674,126	+1.5
Lumber, millwork	189	26,114	26,268	+.6	639,111	652,900	+2.2
Lumber, sawmills	230	66,485	67,909	+2.1	1,316,369	1,404,851	+6.7
Millinery and lace goods	58	10,166	9,725	−4.3	212,696	201,289	−5.4
Paper and pulp	162	50,750	50,251	−1.0	1,298,426	1,325,898	+2.1
Paper boxes	142	14,856	14,790	−.5	301,103	303,961	+.9
Petroleum refining	71	52,843	54,899	+3.9	1,682,354	1,730,231	+2.8
Pianos and organs	26	7,160	7,124	−.5	203,097	200,937	−1.1
Pottery	49	10,463	10,695	+2.2	272,276	277,013	+1.7
Printing, book and job	210	25,512	24,900	−2.4	840,643	833,918	−.8
Printing, newspapers	176	39,301	39,880	+1.5	1,447,291	1,468,578	+1.5
Shipbuilding, steel	25	16,488	15,954	−3.2	472,335	503,508	+6.6
Shirts and collars	97	26,580	26,082	−1.9	407,551	403,302	−1.0
Silk goods	204	55,929	55,689	−.4	1,132,512	1,181,656	+4.3
Slaughtering and meat packing	75	70,417	72,908	+3.5	1,640,776	1,811,886	+1.4
Stamped and enameled ware	36	14,788	14,434	−2.4	333,868	331,226	−.8
Stoves	86	17,134	16,995	−.8	472,143	472,222	(1)
Sugar refining	12	5,967	5,823	−2.4	166,002	169,155	+1.9
Tobacco, chewing and smoking	29	3,530	3,741	+6.0	53,217	56,041	+5.3
Tobacco, cigars and cigarettes	180	31,368	31,108	−.8	553,675	542,494	−2.0
Woolen goods	165	73,499	73,620	+.2	1,668,121	1,853,675	+11.1
Railroads, Class 1 March 15, 1923		1,800,263		.....	[2] 248,582,321		.....
Railroads, Class 1 April 15, 1923		1,827,425		+1.5	[2] 238,966,858		−3.9

[1] Increase of less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

[2] Amount of pay roll for one month.

Comparing May, 1923, with May, 1922, the cigar and cigarette industry alone, of the 13 industries for which data are available, shows decreased employment and pay roll totals. Iron and steel, silk goods, dyeing and finishing textiles, car building and repairing, automobiles, cotton and woolen goods all show from 20 to 59 per cent increases in employment, and from 42 to 84 per cent increases in pay roll totals. The full report is shown in the table following:

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS DURING ONE WEEK IN MAY, 1922, AND MAY, 1923.

Industry.	Establishments reporting both months.	Number on pay roll in one week.		Per cent of change.	Amount of pay roll in one week.		Per cent of change.
		May, 1922.	May, 1923.		May, 1922.	May, 1923.	
Automobiles	38	100,013	138,632	+38.6	$3,385,293	$4,812,468	+42.2
Boots and shoes, not including rubber	74	53,050	58,706	+10.7	1,137,209	1,373,460	+20.8
Car building and repairing, railroad	89	41,862	56,985	+36.1	1,117,874	1,645,136	+47.2
Clothing, men's	43	25,554	26,728	+4.6	613,171	815,923	+33.1
Cotton goods	64	42,972	61,670	+43.5	665,998	1,228,429	+84.4
Dyeing and finishing textiles	25	12,610	15,606	+23.8	254,609	383,386	+50.6
Hosiery and knit goods	73	30,445	30,700	+.8	501,936	549,693	+9.5
Iron and steel	117	142,309	170,672	+19.9	3,142,584	5,273,808	+67.8
Leather	35	11,136	12,430	+11.6	235,118	309,117	+31.5
Paper and pulp	79	25,065	29,251	+16.7	584,991	781,348	+33.6
Silk goods	37	14,122	17,130	+21.3	247,507	404,007	+63.2
Tobacco, cigars and cigarettes	70	14,794	14,629	−1.1	265,575	263,580	−.8
Woolen goods	22	15,379	24,515	+59.4	356,702	641,260	+79.8
Railroads, Class 1	April 15, 1922	1,562,984		.....	[1] 197,052,350		.....
	April 15, 1923	1,827,425		+16.9	[1] 238,966,858		+21.3

[1] Amount of pay roll for one month.

Thirty-six of the forty-seven industries show increased per capita earnings in May, as compared with 30 out of 43 industries in April, 40 in March, 28 in February, and only 10 in January. The most pronounced increases in May were in fertilizers, woolen goods, iron and steel, steel shipbuilding, carpets, hardware, cotton goods, and brick and tile, these ranging from 11.1 to 6.8 per cent. The fertilizer industry, which shows the greatest decrease in employment and earnings, leads in increased per capita earnings. Doubtless this is due to the dropping of the lower paid laborers, a numerous body, and the retaining of experienced and higher paid employees only.

COMPARISON OF PER CAPITA EARNINGS IN MAY, 1923, WITH THOSE IN APRIL, 1923.

Industry.	Per cent of change in May, 1923, as compared with April, 1923.	Industry.	Per cent of change in May, 1923, as compared with April, 1923.
Fertilizers	+11.1	Hosiery and knit goods	+2.0
Woolen goods	+10.9	Flour	+1.9
Iron and steel	+10.8	Boots and shoes, rubber	+1.7
Shipbuilding, steel	+10.2	Lumber, millwork	+1.6
Carpets	+8.1	Printing, book and job	+1.6
Hardware	+7.9	Stamped and enameled ware	+1.6
Cotton goods	+7.0	Paper boxes	+1.4
Brick and tile	+6.8	Cement	+1.0
Slaughtering and meat packing	+6.7	Shirts and collars	+.8
Leather	+5.6	Stoves	+.8
Dyeing and finishing textiles	+5.2	Chemicals	+.7
Baking	+5.0	Automobiles	+.4
Silk goods	+4.8	Furniture	+.4
Confectionery and ice cream	+4.6	Printing, newspapers	(1)
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	+4.5	Boots and shoes, not including rubber	−.4
Lumber, sawmills	+4.5	Pottery	−.5
Sugar refining	+4.4	Pianos and organs	−.6
Clothing, men's	+3.7	Tobacco, chewing and smoking	−.7
Paper and pulp	+3.2	Petroleum refining	−1.0
Agricultural implements	+3.0	Millinery and lace goods	−1.1
Carriages and wagons	+3.0	Tobacco, cigars and cigarettes	−1.2
Foundry and machine shop products	+2.9	Glass	−1.3
Car building and repairing, railroad	+2.8	Automobile tires	−1.4
		Clothing, women's	−6.5

[1] Decrease less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

The amount of full-time and part-time operation in May, 1923, in establishments reporting as to their operating basis is shown in the following table, by industries.

A combined total of reports from the 47 industries shows that 85 per cent of the 4,658 establishments reporting as to their operating time in May were on a full-time basis, 14 per cent on a part-time basis, and 1 per cent were not operating. Similar reports received in April, March, February, and January showed 85 per cent, 87 per cent, 84 per cent, and 81 per cent, respectively, of the establishments reporting on a full-time basis.

In May from 90 to 100 per cent of the establishments in 20 industries were working full time, as compared with a similar condition in 21 industries in April, 26 in March, 22 in February, and 16 in January.

Brick and tile, carpets, women's clothing, dyeing and finishing, textiles, hosiery and knit goods, sawmills, millinery and lace goods, and pianos and organs show a substantial gain in full-time operation, while fertilizers, flour, pottery, and chewing and smoking tobacco all show considerably decreased operation.

FULL AND PART TIME OPERATION IN MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS IN MAY, 1923.

Industry.	Establishments reporting.			
	Total.	Per cent operating full time.	Per cent operating part time.	Per cent idle.
Agricultural implements	31	90	6	3
Automobiles	127	93	7	.....
Automobile tires	61	79	18	3
Baking	166	89	11	1
Boots and shoes, not including rubber	101	80	19	1
Boots and shoes, rubber	3	100	.....	.....
Brick and tile	240	85	12	3
Car building and repairing, railroad	168	99	1	.....
Carpets	20	100	.....	.....
Carriages and wagons	29	83	17	.....
Cement	50	100	.....	.....
Chemicals	67	91	9	.....
Clothing, men's	97	86	11	3
Clothing, women's	76	83	17	.....
Confectionery and ice cream	104	85	15	.....
Cotton goods	224	94	6	.....
Dyeing and finishing textiles	56	79	21	.....
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	69	99	1	.....
Fertilizers	100	46	52	2
Flour	204	31	69	.....
Foundry and machine-shop products	295	95	5	(1)
Furniture	180	92	8	.....
Glass	83	77	12	11
Hardware	26	100	.....	.....
Hosiery and knit goods	145	93	7	.....
Iron and steel	145	82	16	2
Leather	69	88	12	.....
Lumber, millwork	136	89	9	2
Lumber, sawmills	202	85	15	.....
Millinery and lace goods	45	84	13	2
Paper and pulp	92	91	8	1
Paper boxes	108	83	17	.....
Petroleum refining	45	87	13	.....
Pianos and organs	14	100	.....	.....
Pottery	46	63	28	9
Printing, book and job	161	92	8	.....
Printing, newspapers	135	100	.....	.....
Shipbuilding, steel	18	83	11	6
Shirts and collars	62	94	6	.....
Silk goods	180	87	12	1
Slaughtering and meat packing	50	94	6	.....
Stamped and enameled ware	28	89	11	.....
Stoves	75	80	19	1
Sugar refining	6	67	33	.....
Tobacco, chewing and smoking	29	69	24	7
Tobacco, cigars and cigarettes	141	72	24	4
Woolen goods	149	96	4	.....

[1] Less than 1 per cent.

Increases in rates of wages, effective during the month ending May 15, were reported in all the industries here considered except rubber boots and shoes and cigars and cigarettes. These increases were reported by a total of 1,279 establishments as compared with 800 in April and 400 in March. The average increases ranged from 4.7 per cent in car building and repairing to 14.6 per cent in carriages and wagons, with a weighted average for all industries combined of 10.4 per cent. The increases affected 563,783 employees, being 88.4 per cent of the employees in the establishments concerned and 25.1 per cent of the entire number in all establishments covered.

The greatest number of establishments reporting increases in any one industry was 114 in foundry and machine shop products, followed by 103 in iron and steel, 102 in woolen goods, and 99 in cotton

goods. The increases were general to practically all employees in the establishments reporting increases in both cotton and woolen goods, while they affected over 92 per cent in the iron and steel establishments concerned.

The increases affected 79.7 per cent of all employees in all establishments covered in this report in the woolen goods industry, 64.6 per cent in dyeing and finishing textiles, 63.7 per cent in iron and steel, and 51.6 per cent in cotton goods.

WAGE ADJUSTMENTS OCCURRING BETWEEN APRIL 15 AND MAY 15, 1923.

Industry.	Establishments.		Per cent of increase.		Employees affected.		
	Total reporting.	Number reporting increases.	Range.	Average.	Total.	Per cent of employees— In establishments reporting increases.	Per cent of employees— In all establishments reporting.
Agricultural implements	59	13	5 -15	10.9	2,792	66.1	12.5
Automobiles	174	15	5 -20	9.9	1,177	18.9	.5
Automobile tires	71	4	5 -12.5	9.6	963	51.0	2.0
Baking	239	42	4 -13	7.4	1,405	33.3	4.5
Boots and shoes, not including rubber	165	4	5 - 6	5.5	109	5.9	.1
Brick and tile	287	86	5 -25	10.2	7,215	86.4	32.1
Car building and repairing, railroad	194	38	3.4-15	4.7	18,295	54.0	13.3
Carpets	25	10	5 -10	9.0	5,302	83.8	24.9
Carriages and wagons	36	7	10 -20	14.6	227	41.7	8.7
Cement	53	11	8 -16	11.4	1,884	86.0	16.2
Chemicals	98	16	5 -10.2	9.0	2,503	71.3	11.6
Clothing, men's	178	20	7 -33.3	10.2	15,810	96.8	31.7
Clothing, women's	160	17	2 -15	10.2	1,726	87.6	11.1
Confectionery and ice cream	38	9	1 -20	10.2	282	41.9	14.5
Cotton goods	248	99	5 -12.5	12.2	91,694	99.3	51.6
Dyeing and finishing textiles	62	34	5 -20	12.1	17,017	86.4	64.6
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	111	22	5 -12.5	10.1	23,618	77.5	26.2
Fertilizers	109	20	6 -25	12.3	2,085	78.5	27.9
Flour	244	21	5 -12.5	8.7	865	56.5	7.4
Foundry and machine-shop products	399	114	1.7-16.3	8.8	22,014	56.2	15.1
Furniture	249	44	3 -20	7.6	3,827	47.3	9.7
Glass	103	15	5 -15	11.4	4,435	64.6	13.9
Hardware	30	10	7 -12	10.0	4,248	65.8	21.3
Hosiery and knit goods	222	25	5 -12.5	11.6	11,837	94.3	15.7
Iron and steel	175	103	3 -14.3	10.3	153,630	92.2	63.7
Leather	121	29	5.3-20	9.2	3,346	63.4	12.7
Lumber, millwork	189	60	3.5-22.9	9.4	5,610	65.9	21.4
Lumber, sawmills	230	54	3.5-20	8.5	14,141	78.9	20.8
Millinery and lace goods	58	7	7.5-12.5	12.1	2,037	96.6	20.9
Paper and pulp	162	50	4 -25	9.8	18,145	92.7	36.1
Paper boxes	142	21	5 -13	8.7	1,290	56.5	8.7
Petroleum refining	71	5	8 -10.4	10.0	919	27.8	1.7
Pianos and organs	26	4	2.5-10	9.7	144	33.2	2.0
Pottery	49	7	5 -14	11.3	398	25.9	3.7
Printing, book and job	210	11	3 -10	7.1	154	12.3	.6
Printing, newspapers	176	7	5 -10	7.5	567	25.9	1.4
Shipbuilding, steel	25	8	7 -15.5	10.4	5,199	87.9	32.6
Shirts and collars	97	4	6.3-20	10.7	605	89.5	2.3
Silk goods	204	49	4 -15	10.1	16,847	83.6	30.3
Slaughtering and meat packing	75	34	5 -12	9.5	36,106	85.9	49.5
Stamped and enameled ware	36	6	5 -12	7.9	1,427	71.2	9.9
Stoves	86	15	4 -15	9.2	487	14.8	2.9
Sugar refining	12	3	7 -11	9.2	2,631	86.4	45.2
Tobacco, chewing and smoking	29	4	10 -11.5	10.2	123	15.3	3.3
Woolen goods	165	102	5 -12.5	11.8	58,647	99.3	79.7

Only one decrease in rates of wages was reported during the month. A men's clothing establishment, having 101 employees, decreased the wages of a part and increased the wages of others, resulting in an average decrease of 5.4 per cent to 85 employees.

Employment and Earnings of Railroad Employees, April, 1922, and March and April, 1923.

THE following table shows the number of employees and the earnings in various occupations among railroad employees in April, 1923, in comparison with employment in March, 1923, and April, 1922. The figures are for Class 1 roads—that is, all roads having operating revenues of $1,000,000 a year and over.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS OF RAILROAD EMPLOYEES IN APRIL, 1923, WITH APRIL, 1922, AND MARCH, 1923.

[From monthly reports of Interstate Commerce Commission. As data for only the more important occupations are shown separately, the group totals are not the sum of the items shown under the respective groups.]

Month and year.	Professional, clerical, and general.			Maintenance of way and structures.		
	Clerks.	Stenographers and typists.	Total for group.	Laborers (extra gang and work train).	Track and roadway section laborers.	Total for group.
	Number of employees at middle of month.					
April, 1922	157,082	23,819	264,186	34,445	186,752	332,938
March, 1923	169,301	24,799	281,764	40,632	181,015	342,353
April, 1923	170,160	24,906	282,867	50,533	204,387	380,513
	Total earnings.					
April, 1922	$19,411,121	$2,805,265	$34,529,825	$2,559,488	$13,575,219	$30,086,827
March, 1923	21,509,023	2,955,092	37,547,167	3,156,105	13,390,138	31,871,108
April, 1923	20,847,844	2,890,373	36,674,783	3,940,417	14,647,213	34,151,504

	Maintenance of equipment and stores.					
	Carmen.	Machinists.	Skilled trade helpers.	Laborers (shops, engine houses, power plants, and stores).	Common laborers (shops, engine houses, power plants, and stores).	Total for group.
	Number of employees at middle of month.					
April, 1922	109,328	53,378	96,668	40,376	50,491	467,006
March, 1923	134,797	68,688	138,558	52,538	64,382	591,754
April, 1923	134,748	68,165	134,372	50,743	62,598	583,830
	Total earnings.					
April, 1922	$15,404,242	$8,040,837	$10,464,306	$3,721,722	$3,947,377	$58,734,024
March, 1923	20,006,796	11,967,234	15,812,030	5,162,403	5,377,384	79,729,999
April, 1923	18,987,230	11,048,604	14,481,225	4,781,385	5,000,813	74,820,786

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT AND EARNINGS OF RAILROAD EMPLOYEES IN APRIL, 1923, WITH APRIL, 1922, AND MARCH, 1923—Concluded.

Month and year.	Transportation, other than train, engine, and yard.					Transportation (yard masters, switch tenders, and hostlers).
	Station agents.	Telegraphers, telephoners, and towermen.	Truckers (stations, warehouses, and platforms).	Crossing and bridge flagmen, and gatemen.	Total for group.	
	Number of employees at middle of month.					
April, 1922	31,394	25,889	34,130	21,861	195,120	22,255
March, 1923	31,543	27,432	43,095	22,605	213,709	26,354
April, 1923	31,502	27,343	42,852	22,651	213,501	26,236
	Total earnings.					
April, 1922	$4,510,037	$3,617,037	$3,076,130	$1,687,432	$22,643,574	$3,725,386
March, 1923	4,767,057	4,002,374	4,156,913	1,634,866	25,662,883	4,711,108
April, 1923	4,551,122	3,839,867	3,868,140	1,636,791	24,660,181	4,559,698
	Transportation, train and engine.					
	Road conductors.	Road brakemen and flagmen.	Yard brakemen and yard helpers.	Road engineers and motormen.	Road firemen and helpers.	Total for group.
	Number of employees at middle of month.					
April, 1922	33,030	67,583	43,609	39,164	40,940	281,479
March, 1923	38,296	80,264	55,430	47,556	49,599	344,329
April, 1923	38,088	79,229	54,649	47,111	48,882	340,478
	Total earnings.					
April, 1922	$6,642,634	$9,627,232	$6,245,290	$8,840,387	$6,504,377	$47,332,714
March, 1923	9,287,692	14,151,856	9,516,228	12,797,513	9,452,941	69,060,056
April, 1923	8,623,085	13,061,600	8,936,399	11,813,231	8,733,577	64,099,906

Extent of Operation of Bituminous Coal Mines, April 28 to May 19, 1923.

CONTINUING a series of tables which have appeared in previous numbers of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, the accompanying table shows for a large number of coal mines in the bituminous fields the number of mines closed the entire week and the number working certain classified hours per week from April 28 to May 19, 1923. The number of mines reporting varied each week, and the figures are not given as being a complete presentation of all mines, but are believed fairly to represent the conditions as to regularity of work in the bituminous mines of the country. The mines included in this report ordinarily represent 55 to 60 per cent of the total output of bituminous coal. The figures are based on data furnished to the Bureau of Labor Statistics by the United States Geological Survey.

WORKING TIME IN BITUMINOUS COAL MINES IN THE UNITED STATES, BY WEEKS, APRIL 28 TO MAY 19, 1923.

[The mines included ordinarily represent from 55 to 60 per cent of the total output. Prepared by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from date furnished by the United States Geological Survey.]

Week ending—	Number of mines reporting.	Mines—															
		Closed entire week.		Working less than 8 hours.		Working 8 and less than 16 hours.		Working 16 and less than 24 hours.		Working 24 and less than 32 hours.		Working 32 and less than 40 hours.		Working 40 and less than 48 hours.		Working full time of 48 hours, or more.	
		No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.
1923.																	
Apr. 28.	2,355	520	22.1	102	4.3	505	21.4	516	21.9	326	13.8	156	6.6	118	5.0	112	4.8
May 5.	2,363	529	22.4	107	4.5	495	20.9	545	23.1	268	11.3	170	7.2	123	5.2	126	5.3
May 12.	2,372	533	22.5	81	3.4	436	18.4	560	23.6	308	13.0	171	7.2	149	6.3	134	5.6
May 19.	2,416	543	22.5	94	3.9	474	19.6	510	21.1	344	14.2	191	7.9	134	5.5	126	5.2

Recent Employment Statistics.

Iowa.

EMPLOYMENT conditions in Iowa are still improving, according to the Iowa Employment Survey of April, 1923, which announces an increase of 1.9 per cent in numbers on pay rolls in that month over the preceding one and a 33.1 per cent increase over April, 1922. The following table shows the loss or gain in various industrial groups in March and April, 1923, as compared with the corresponding months in 1922:

CHANGES IN VOLUME OF EMPLOYMENT IN MARCH AND APRIL, 1923, AS COMPARED WITH MARCH AND APRIL, 1922, BY INDUSTRY GROUPS.

Industry group.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−).	
	March, 1923, as compared with March, 1922.	April, 1923, as compared with April, 1922.
Food and kindred products	+11.9	+ 6.4
Textiles	+ 3.2	+14.7
Iron and steel work	+42.2	+63.8
Lumber products	+17.5	+36.6
Leather products	− 1.2	+12.5
Paper products, printing, and publishing	+19.1	+ 7.1
Patent medicines, chemicals, and compounds	+76.1	−21.7
Stone and clay products	+30.0	+17.1
Tobacco and cigars	− 3.9	−17.9
Various industries	− 8.9	+ 6.0
Total	+22.1	+33.1
Railway car shops (7 reporting)	− 8.2	+13.2

Massachusetts.[1]

THE total number of persons placed by the four State employment offices of Massachusetts in April, 1923, was 4,135, which was 26.4 per cent more than the number placed by these offices in April,

[1] Massachusetts. Department of Labor and Industries. Typewritten report, dated May 25, 1923.

1922. The number of persons called for by employers in April, 1923, was 5,730, or 34.7 per cent more than the number called for in the same month in the preceding year.

When the reports of the four offices for the first four months of 1922 and 1923 are compared, the indications of the recent improvement in the labor market are even more pronounced, the number of persons placed in the later period being 35.4 per cent above the record for the corresponding four months in 1922 and the number of persons called for being nearly 40 per cent higher for the first third of the present year than for the first third of last year.

Missouri.

State Free Employment Offices.[2]

THE following statistics show the activities of the three State free employment offices in Missouri for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1922:

NUMBER OF APPLICATIONS, POSITIONS OFFERED BY EMPLOYERS, AND PLACES FILLED IN STATE FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES OF MISSOURI DURING FISCAL YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1922.

City.	Number of applications for employment by—			Number of positions offered by employers for—			Number of places filled by—		
	Males.	Females.	Both Sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both sexes.	Males.	Females.	Both sexes.
St. Louis	17,862	9,853	27,715	8,438	3,710	12,148	8,228	3,459	11,687
Kansas City	126,730	2,193	128,923	20,646	2,004	22,650	18,263	1,606	19,869
St. Joseph	11,698	1,773	13,471	15,176	2,261	17,437	11,698	1,773	13,471
Total	156,290	13,819	170,109	44,260	7,975	52,235	38,189	6,838	45,027

Private Employment Agencies.[3]

The Bureau of Labor Statistics of Missouri in the fiscal years 1921 and 1922 closely supervised the activities of fee-charging employment agencies despite the fact that the law regulating such agencies is "admittedly vague and inadequate." The bureau was able to prevent numerous abuses and to eliminate those agencies which filch fees from unfortunate applicants for positions. The statute regulating private employment agencies requires complete revision to prevent technical evasions. Among the 80 fee-charging employment agencies in Missouri there are several which make a specialty of placing school teachers and theatrical people. Four are carried on by colored persons.

The city inspectors of private employment agencies have also adjusted wage claims and accelerated the collection of sums due to the workers. Hundreds of workers have appealed to the bureau for assistance and advice in connection with wage claims, and the majority, who had no funds or friends, were able, through the help of State labor officials to collect the small amounts of money they had worked so hard to earn.

[2] Missouri. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Annual reports for the two calendar years ended Dec. 31, 1922, Jefferson City, 1923, p. 1007.
[3] Idem, pp. viii, ix.

Unemployment in Foreign Countries.[1]

SINCE the last publication in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW (April, 1923, pp. 107–117) of data on unemployment in foreign countries the situation as regards the state of employment has on the whole shown signs of improvement. After allowing for seasonal fluctuations, which generally depress the labor market in the winter months, conditions are better than in the months immediately preceding, and considerably better than the corresponding period of last year. In only two or three of the countries for which statistics are available are industrial conditions becoming worse.

Briefly summarized, the situation in the individual countries at the latest date for which data are available is as follows:

Great Britain.—An encouraging decrease of unemployment during the first quarter of 1923 has been one of the substantial signs of improving conditions in British industry and trade. The official returns for the end of March show a total of 1,303,476 persons wholly unemployed and claiming insurance benefit. This number represents a decrease of almost 13 per cent from the January figure (1,493,036). During April employment showed a further improvement, the number of totally unemployed having fallen to 1,283,757. As compared with the same period of 1922, there are now close to 500,000 fewer recipients of the unemployment dole.

According to a report of the American commercial attaché at London (Commerce Reports, May 21, 1923, p. 523) the degree of employment in British industries as a whole is now at the highest point reached since the definite collapse of the post-war boom. This situation is ample proof that British business, both domestic and foreign, is making headway, despite the effects of continental uncertainties and the continued disorganization of formerly important overseas markets. The logical inference from the better volume of employment in Great Britain is that the current state of world markets and trade is better than at any other time since 1921.

That there is room for improvement, however, appears from the fact that 10.9 per cent of the workers in insured trades were idle on April 23, 1923. According to pre-war standards, that percentage is considerably above the figure reached during periods of business depression and about three times the figure for times of ordinary business prosperity. For those who persist in making all comparisons solely by reference to pre-war normals, the current situation, therefore, is still most discouraging. On the other hand, those who are inclined to measure progress since the post-war crisis find much encouragement in the steadily dwindling numbers of unemployed.

Conditions differ greatly in the various industry groups, but it is significant that among the 10 leading British industries the textile industry alone has failed to show improvement since January. The engineering group far outstrips all others in actual number of unemployed (196,458), but in percentage of idleness the shipbuilding industry (29.5 per cent of workers unemployed) stands in a class by itself, in spite of the increased volume of contracts placed for new

[1] Except where otherwise noted the sources from which this article is compiled are shown in the table on pp. 162 and 163.

ships during recent months. The other extreme is represented by coal mining, in which the per cent of unemployed (3.2 per cent) is close to what might be called normal for the industry. It is also worth noting that in several other industries the percentage of unemployment is distinctly lower than the general average for the country and that some of these represent lines in which keen competition is felt from American products in world markets.

In summarizing the employment situation in April, the Ministry of Labor Gazette states that employment "was good at coal mines, in tinplate and sheet steel manufacture, and in the carpet trade; fairly good in the worsted trade; and fair in the iron and steel, woolen, tailoring, leather, furnishing, paper, and printing trades. In many other large industries, although employment was still slack, a gradual improvement was reported; but there was a decline in employment in the cotton, hosiery, and worsted industries."

Germany.—The Reichs-Arbeitsblatt of May 1, 1923, in its summary of employment conditions in March, 1923, states that "the advancing season brought about improved employment in March for agriculture and the hotel and restaurant trades only. In the building trades unemployment was again widely prevalent, in spite of signs here and there of some revival, while in other industries the situation as a whole remained unchanged from the preceding month. As regards the textile and metal trades some slight indications of improvement were noted, but only in Silesia. Generally, it may be stated that the unemployment reported consisted in working reduced time rather than in complete cessation of work."

The stagnation of industry in the occupied area continues, coal production having practically ceased, and the metallurgical, chemical, and dye production being greatly cut down. Production of chemicals and dyes has declined by at least 50 per cent. All unemployment crises have been avoided thus far by the institution of repair and extension work in various plants, particularly coal mines; this work has been financed largely by the Government.

The degree of depression in German industry is indicated in the following statistics of short-time and total unemployment given in the Reichs-Arbeitsblatt: Returns for March from 36 trade-union federations, with a total membership of 5,117,661, showed that 1,237,356 members, or 24.2 per cent, were working short time, as against 15.9 per cent in February. The trade-unions having the highest percentage of short-time workers were those of shoemakers (66.9 per cent), textile workers (52.7 per cent), clothing workers (42.4 per cent), and tobacco workers (40.7 per cent). Of the total number of 1,237,356 short-time workers, 255,000, or 20.6 per cent (27.7 per cent in February), lost between 1 and 8 hours per week; 351,933, or 28.5 per cent (26.6 per cent in February), lost between 9 and 16 hours; 496,452, or 40.1 per cent (33.3 per cent in February), lost between 17 and 24 hours; and 133,971, or 10.8 per cent (12.4 per cent in February), lost more than 24 hours per week.

Returns on total unemployment of members were made by 41 trade-union federations, with 6,775,860 members, of which 5,934,349 were covered by the returns. Of the latter number 340,711 (232,733 male and 107,978 female members), or 5.7 per cent, were totally

unemployed in March, as against 5.5 per cent in February. Tobacco workers had the largest percentage of unemployed (37.3), the Christian leather workers, with 27.5 per cent, the building trades workers, with 13.7 per cent, the bakers and confectioners, with 11.8 per cent, and the printers, with 11.3 per cent, following in the order named.

The official statistics as to the number of unemployed persons in receipt of out-of-work donations are incomplete for March, returns relating to the Rhine Province not being available. So far as they go, they show that on April 1 a total of 224,808 persons (190,908 men and 33,900 women) were wholly unemployed and receiving donations, as compared with 193,118 on March 1. A further 110,020 persons, working short time, were also being assisted from public resources. The Government dole to those totally unemployed varies from 22,000 to 28,000 marks per week, according to the locality, for a worker with a wife and two children. It is estimated that the minimum expenditure for such a family in the Berlin district is approximately 80,000 marks. Although the Government dole by no means meets this minimum cost of living, nevertheless the Government has disbursed about eleven and one-half billion marks in March for unemployment doles.

The returns from public employment exchanges show that in the month under review there were 1,037,814 applicants for work on the live register, against which may be offset 414,611 offers of situations by employers. On the average there were 340 applications for each 100 vacancies for men and 150 for each 100 vacancies for women, as compared with 321 and 163, respectively, in the preceding month.

Statistics from 5,680 sick funds show that on April 1 the number of persons under obligation to insure (and therefore assumed to be employed) was 12,970,159, a decrease of 1.2 per cent as compared with the total on March 1 (13,123,682).

France.—In France unemployment is almost nonexistent, the total number of unemployed receiving benefits from departmental or municipal unemployment funds being only 2,311 on May 24, 1923, as against 91,225 in March, 1921, when unemployment was at the highest level in France. Unemployment funds had been established in 31 (approximately one-third) of the Departments in France, and in addition there are 233 municipal funds. Of this total of 264 funds there are now only 44 (6 departmental and 38 municipal funds) in operation, thus indicating a general improvement throughout the country, as compared with 1921 and 1922.

The deadlock in the French metallurgical industry due to the occupation of the Ruhr continues, according to a report from the American commercial attaché at Paris, dated May 13, 1923 (Commerce Reports, May 21, 1923, p. 476), although some progress is being made in fuel shipments from the Ruhr. Although conditions in France are generally satisfactory, labor unrest is felt in both the cotton and woolen textile industries. In the Elbeuf woolen mills 10,000 strikers are out. The strikes of the Lille cotton mill workers and the Paris dressmakers, which started during April, ended in favor of the employers. Present high prices are causing general uncertainty concerning future prospects in the silk industry.

Italy.—The Italian Government has not published any unemployment statistics since January 1, 1923, on which date, as already reported in the April issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, the number of totally unemployed was 381,968 and that of short-time workers 42,558.

The American commercial attaché at Rome reports under date of May 5 (Commerce Reports, May 14, 1923, p. 414) that industry is, on the whole, rather dull. A revival from industrial depression began to take pronounced form last July and continued unabated to the close of the year. Since the beginning of 1923, however, unfavorable features have again become manifest. While no actual depression has set in, limited domestic demand and the failure of export trade to expand satisfactorily have checked industrial production in many lines. The engineering trade is depressed, but the automotive industry and the manufacture of railroad materials are fairly active. Cotton spinners' stocks are fairly light, but the domestic demand is reduced, while exports are only fair. The cotton association has recommended a four-day week for spinners and weavers for a period of two months because of the slackness of demand. Woolen mills are also quiet because of the refusal of consumers to pay prices corresponding to the cost of raw materials. The production of pig iron has increased greatly since the occupation of the Ruhr. The Sicilian production of sulphur has increased since the agreement with American producers.

Belgium.—In Belgium unemployment is decreasing from month to month. In March only 2.6 per cent of the members of unemployment funds were out of work or working short time.

A report from the American commercial attaché at Brussels, dated May 19, 1923 (Commerce Reports, May 28, 1923, p. 541) states, however, that business conditions have been seriously affected by the strike of the railroad, telephone, postal, and telegraph employees, which began during the last week in April and has served to paralyze freight and postal service throughout the country.

The Netherlands.—Although unemployment has somewhat decreased in March, the labor situation has been increasingly uncertain during the month and has left much to be desired. There has been considerable friction in the building trades both at Amsterdam and Rotterdam, in both cases the trouble ending in a short-lived strike. There have also been strikes in the furniture and clothing industries and in several smaller industries. In the textile industry in Twenthe the proposed reduction of 10 per cent in wages was at first accepted by the labor organization but later a strike resulted affecting about 2,500 hands. The strike was, however, of short duration.[2]

Switzerland.—The favorable development of the Swiss labor market that had set in at the end of January has continued during April. The number of totally unemployed has fallen from 44,909 at the end of March to 35,512 at the end of April, the lowest figure since January, 1921. The effects of the Ruhr situation are among the most important features of conditions in Switzerland. In some

[2] From a report of the American consulate at Rotterdam, dated April 24, 1923.

respects Swiss producers have derived considerable advantage from the retardation of Germany industry, which has given them a better chance in the home market. On the other hand, the failure of deliveries of semimanufactured materials and fuel from the Ruhr, owing to the lack of transportation facilities and the unwillingness of German shippers to obtain export licenses from the French authorities, has had an unfavorable effect.

Considered by occupational groups there was an increase in the number of unemployed in two groups only: Hotel and restaurant employees (163) and domestic servants (41). The principal decreases were reported in the case of unskilled labor (2,872), building trades workers and painters (2,223), watchmakers and jewelers (1,173), metal-working machinery and electrical industries (963), textile industry (883), woodworking, and glass manufacture (312). As 12,279 persons employed on emergency relief works were counted as totally unemployed, the number of actually unemployed was only 23,233. Of this number 11,015 received unemployment donations.

The number of short-time workers decreased from 19,779 in March to 17,767 in April. Increases in the number of short-time workers were reported for the building trades workers and in the manufacture of building materials (2,020), mining and peat digging (15), and the clothing and leather industry (20). In most of the other industry groups there was a decrease of short-time work.

Denmark.—According to a report from the American trade commissioner at Copenhagen dated May 19, 1923 (Commerce Reports, June 4, 1923, p. 663), the economic condition in Denmark continues to improve. Industry is becoming more active and unemployment is decreasing. Confidence in financial circles is returning slowly, exports are increasing, and the krone is becoming more stable. Industrial activity has increased in all lines, but fear of German dumping as a result of the decline of the mark exists. Shipping is active and shipbuilders are busy. The agricultural outlook is generally promising, but cold weather is retarding the growth of crops. Unemployment has declined from 60,000 a year ago to 28,000.

Norway.—The American trade commissioner at Copenhagen reports under date of May 19, 1923 (Commerce Reports, June 4, 1923, p. 663), that the labor situation in Norway has improved and no major strikes are expected. The number of unemployed on May 1, was 19,000, a substantial decrease from 22,600 on March 24 and 27,000 on March 15. Agreements have been concluded in the iron industry providing a slight reduction in wages. Industrial activity is generally good, with active foreign demand for export products. Wood-pulp stock is reported exhausted and prices are expected to rise. Shipping is fairly active, although profits are small. The most important development during April was the financial crisis, the effect of which is likely to extend the economic depression.

Sweden.—The Unemployment Commission reports that on April 1, 1923, there were 43,400 unemployed, as compared with 49,200 on March 1. Of this number 22,600 were in the cities and 20,800 in the

rural districts. Among the unemployed were 426 women. The industries in which there was the most unemployment are the following: Metal working and machinery industries (10,532), stone and glass industries (3,994), mining (3,633), building construction work (3,158), agriculture and forestry (2,892), handicrafts and specialty industries (2,630), and woodworking industries (2,181).[3]

On April 1, 1923, there were in round numbers 7,500 workers receiving State aid toward their support, as compared with 8,000 on March 1 and 8,600 on February 1. The number of persons employed on emergency relief works on April 1 was 13,693, as compared with 14,346 on March 1. Aside from State aid given to the unemployed, communities and municipalities gave assistance, so that of the total number of unemployed 60.2 per cent were given aid toward their support. During the first three months of the year the total cost to the Government for unemployment doles and relief work was 8,526,717 kronor ($2,285,160, par). During March this cost amounted to 3,032,229 kronor ($812,637, par).

The Ruhr occupation is affecting Sweden both adversely and favorably. Swedish iron ore exports have almost entirely stopped, while the supply of rails, beams, and other construction materials of iron and steel is likewise being shut off, thus hampering seriously the building trades. Swedish home industries, however, are greatly benefited by the disappearance from the Swedish market of serious German competition.[4]

Finland.—Unemployment in Finland decreased in February. At the end of that month the number of unemployed registered at communal employment exchanges was 1,992 as compared with 3,487 a year ago.

The American trade commissioner at Riga reports (Commerce Reports, May 21, 1923, p. 479) industrial conditions in Finland satisfactory. The timber market indicated increased activity in March. Owing to the rise in exchange value of the Finnish mark, the prices received for paper in foreign currency have, in some cases, been less than production costs, which have not fallen with the rise in exchange. Several paper mills have stopped the output of paper while continuing the production of pulp. There is a fairly active demand in the pulp industry.

The metal and textile industries are maintaining a stable position. The iron works have profited by the reduction of imports from Germany. On the other hand, the machine shops have suffered inconvenience from inability to obtain materials and supplies from the Ruhr district. The leather manufacturing industry has, in general, declined during the past two years as the result of foreign competition, and large stocks of leather remain unsold. The boot and shoe industry, however, is gaining, and domestic products are gradually replacing imports. The usual seasonal increase in the production of butter began in the spring. Finland is gradually recovering its former important position as a butter exporter.

[3] From a report of the American consulate at Stockholm, dated May 2, 1923.
[4] Commerce Reports, Washington, June 4, 1923, p. 666.

Poland.—According to calculations of the Ministry of Labor the number of unemployed in Poland has decreased from 117,343 on April 1 to about 94,000 on May 1.[5] The decrease is almost entirely accounted for by seasonal resumption of farming and building activities. No important change was observed as regards industrial unemployment. It is to be noted that the figures given do not reflect the true picture of the industrial situation in Poland. While the number of men actually out of work may be said to be small, the month of April witnessed a reduction of the number of working days in almost all branches of industry, factories working on Government orders, woolen mills, and a few other branches excepted.

Austria.—The American trade commissioner in Vienna cabled under date of May 13, 1923 (Commerce Reports, May 21, 1923, p. 478), that the Austrian situation was characterized by a steady exchange and that some improvement in industrial and commercial activity was noticeable, particularly in the exports of machinery, electrical manufactures, and leather. Important strikes were settled, but there was increase of unemployment, while living costs and wages increased by 7 per cent. The unemployed in the Vienna industrial district numbered 102,000 on April 21, as against 100,000 on March 24, 1923, and 90,000 at the end of December, 1922, an increase of about 13 per cent since the end of last year.

Czechoslovakia.—The American commercial attaché at Prague reports under date of May 2, 1923 (Commerce Reports, June 4, 1923, p. 662), that general business conditions in Czechoslovakia during the month of April showed a further slight recovery, there being continued active demand, at firm prices, for coke, iron, and steel. Total unemployment was estimated at 340,000 at the beginning of May, as compared with 404,000 on March 1, and 420,000 at the beginning of the year. At the end of April there was a strike in the chemical industry affecting 5,000 workers; prospects, however, for an early agreement are favorable.

Canada.—In a special report released May 22, 1923, the Dominion Bureau of Statistics summarizes the May employment situation as follows:

> The volume of employment at the beginning of May, as anticipated in the last report, showed a substantial increase, approximately 32,000 persons having been added to the staffs of the 5,820 firms making employment returns to the Dominion Bureau of Statistics. Their pay rolls aggregated 752,037 workers as compared with 720,270 on April 1; the index number reflecting this gain rose from 87.6 at that time to 91.4 on May 1, while at the beginning of May, 1922, it had stood at 83.3 and in May, 1921, at 84.1. The increases during the period under review, which greatly exceeded those reported during the corresponding period of the two preceding years, were mainly due to a revival of activity in manufacturing and also in construction and other outside industries.
>
> Firms in all Provinces except the maritimes increased their staffs considerably. The gains in Ontario and Quebec, which provided work for over 22,000 persons, were the most extensive, but the percentage gains in the prairie Provinces and British Columbia were also large. The expansion in these districts was of a general character, though it was especially heavy in manufacturing; the only marked decline in the central and prairie Provinces occurred in logging, and was a seasonal movement. The contraction in the maritime district was slight, increased activity in manufacturing being largely offset by losses due to the closing of the winter ports and in coal mining and logging. * * *

[5] From a report of the American consulate at Warsaw, dated May 9, 1923.

An analysis of the returns by industrial groups shows increased activity in all manufacturing industries except leather, in which the employment afforded in boot, shoe, tanning, and currying factories declined by 4 per cent. The most pronounced expansion was registered in iron and steel, representing chiefly the reopening of the railway car shops after brief shutdowns over Easter. Improvement was also recorded in automobile and general machinery works, and in rolling mills. Textile manufacturers, excluding garment makers, were considerably busier, especially so in thread, yarn, cloth, and knitting mills. Large additions to staffs were reported by pulp and paper works; seasonal activity was also indicated in fish canning, smoking and curing establishments, and in dairies and meat-packing houses. In addition expansion was reported in biscuit, canning, sugar, starch, brick, glass, stone, gas, coke, tobacco, chemical, electric current, and electrical appliance plants. The construction, transportation, trade, and communication industries were busier, the improvement in the first named being particularly noteworthy. Further heavy seasonal losses were indicated in logging camps in every Province except British Columbia, where large additions to staffs were recorded. Coal mining in both eastern and western coal fields afforded considerably less employment, indicating seasonal curtailment of industries.

A summary of the latest statistical reports on unemployment is given in the table following.

SUMMARY OF LATEST REPORTS ON UNEMPLOYMENT IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Country.	Date.	Number or per cent of unemployed.	Source of data.	Remarks.
Great Britain and northern Ireland.	Apr. 23, 1923	1,283,757 (number of unemployment books lodged), representing 10.9 per cent of all persons insured against unemployment.	Ministry of Labor Gazette, London, May, 1923.	Of the 1,283,757 persons having lodged their unemployment books, 1,031,622 were males and 252,135 were females. In addition, 59,935 persons, or 0.5 per cent of all insured persons, were systematic short-time workers entitled to out-of-work donation. The per cent of totally unemployed workers on Mar. 26, 1923, was 11.1 and that of short-time workers 0.5.
Do	Apr. 30, 1923	11.3 per cent of trade-union members	do	The corresponding per cent at the end of March, 1923, was 12.3 and 17 at the end of April, 1922.
Germany	Apr. 1, 1923	224,808 totally unemployed persons receiving unemployment donation.	Reichs-Arbeitsblatt, Berlin, May 1, 1923.	Of the 224,808 persons receiving unemployment donations, 190,908 were males and 33,900 were females. On Mar. 1, 1923, the total number was 193,118; the increase on Apr. 1 is thus equivalent to 16.4 per cent.
Do	Mar. 31, 1923	5.7 per cent of trade-union members	do	The corresponding per cent at the end of the last week of February, 1923, was 5.5 and 1.1 at the end of the last week of March, 1922.
France	May 24, 1923	2,311 persons in receipt of unemployment benefits from departmental and municipal unemployment funds.	Bulletin du Marché du Travail, Paris, May 25, 1923.	Of the 2,311 persons in receipt of unemployment benefit, 2,140 were males and 171 were females. At the end of the preceding week the number of persons receiving unemployment benefits was 2,335.
Do	May 19, 1923	8,079 persons on live register of employment exchanges.	do	Of the 8,079 persons on the live register of employment exchanges, 5,377 were males and 2,702 were females.
Belgium	Mar. 31, 1923	16,776 members of unemployment funds, or 2.6 per cent of the total membership, were either wholly unemployed or on short time.[1]	Revue du Travail, Brussels, Apr. 30, 1923.	The corresponding per cent on Feb. 28, 1923, was 3.1 per cent. The aggregate days of unemployment in March, 1923, numbered 218,900 [1] as against 295,860 in February, 1923.
Do	do	10,497 persons on live register of public employment exchanges.	do	The corresponding number at the end of February, 1923, was 11,950.
The Netherlands	do	27,400, or 8.8 per cent of the total membership of unemployment funds, were totally unemployed and 7,338, or 2.4 per cent, partially so.	Ministry of Labor Gazette, London, May, 1923.	In the last week of February the corresponding percentages were 14 and 3.6, respectively.
Do	March, 1923	125,666 applicants for employment at public employment exchanges.	Maandschrift, The Hague, Apr. 30, 1923.	The corresponding number for February, 1923, was 125,527.
Switzerland	Apr. 30, 1923	35,512 totally unemployed (including 12,279 employed on relief works), 17,767 short-time workers.	Der Schweizerische Arbeitsmarkt, Bern, May 15, 1923.	The corresponding figures for Mar. 31, 1923, were 44,909 totally unemployed (including 15,385 employed on relief works) and 19,797 short-time workers.
Do	do	11,015 persons received unemployment donations.	do	The corresponding number on Mar. 31, 1923, was 17,010.
Denmark	Apr. 27, 1923	11.5 per cent out of a total of 255,394 workers covered by returns of trade-unions and of the Central Employment Exchange were unemployed.	Statistiske Efterretninger, Copenhagen, May 14, 1923.	The corresponding per cent at the end of the last week of March, 1923, was 16, and at the end of the last week of April, 1922, 24.
Norway	Mar. 24, 1923	22,600 unemployed persons	Sociale Meddelelser, Christiania, No. 4, 1923.	The corresponding number on Feb. 25, 1923, was 27,200.
Sweden	Mar. 31, 1923	19.9 per cent of trade-union members	Sociala Meddelanden, Stockholm, No. 5, 1923.	The corresponding per cent on Feb. 28, 1923, was 20.8 and 30.4 on Mar. 31, 1922.
Do	do	43,400 unemployed (estimate of State un-	do	The corresponding number on Feb. 28, 1923, was 49,200.

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Sweden	Mar. 31, 1923	19.9 per cent of trade-union members	Sociala Meddelanden, Stockholm, No. 5, 1923.	The corresponding per cent on Feb. 28, 1923, was 20.8 and 30.4 on Mar. 31, 1922.
Do	do	43,400 unemployed (estimate of State unemployment commission)	do	The corresponding number on Feb. 28, 1923, was 49,200.
Finland	Feb. 28, 1923	1,992 unemployed (1,451 men and 541 women) registered at communal employment exchanges.	Bank of Finland Monthly Bulletin, Helsingfors, March, 1923.	At the end of January, 1923, the number of unemployed was 2,253 and 3,487 at the end of February, 1922.
Poland	May 1, 1923	94,000 persons unemployed	Report of American consulate at Warsaw, dated May 9, 1923.	The corresponding number on Apr. 1, 1923, was 117,343.
Austria (Vienna)	Mar. 24, 1923	100,407 persons on live register of public employment exchanges.	Arbeit und Wirtschaft, Vienna, May 1, 1923.	The number of persons on the live register of public employment exchanges has decreased by 0.27 per cent as compared with Feb. 24, 1923, and increased by 419.7 per cent as compared with Dec. 31, 1921.
Do	do	85,593 persons in receipt of unemployment donations.	do	The number of persons in receipt of unemployment donations has decreased by 1.11 per cent as compared with Feb. 24, 1923, and increased by 817.69 per cent as compared with Dec. 31, 1921.
Czechoslovakia	May 1, 1923	340,000 unemployed (estimated)	Commerce Reports, Washington, June 4, 1923.	The corresponding number on Mar. 1, was 404,000.
Canada	Apr. 1, 1923	6.8 per cent of trade-union members	Labor Gazette, Ottawa, May, 1923	The corresponding per cent on Mar. 1, 1923, was 6.4 and 9.6 on Apr. 1, 1922.

[1] Subject to revision.

HOUSING.

Building Permits in Principal Cities of the United States in 1922.

By H. B. Byer.

IN COLLECTING the data here compiled concerning building permits issued in 1922 the Bureau of Labor Statistics sent a questionnaire to each of the 288 cities in the United States having a population of 25,000 or over. The majority of these reports were filled and mailed in by the building inspectors of the different cities, but because inspectors of some cities did not reply a number of reports had to be obtained by personal visits of agents of the bureau. Complete reports were received from 272 cities. The data were drawn either directly from the original applications for permits on file in the local building inspector's office or from record books kept by the inspector.

From the remaining 16 cities having a population of 25,000 or over either no report was obtained or the one received was so fragmentary as to be of no use in compiling the report. In the main the reason for not obtaining data from these cities was that they either had no building code or had one that did not require full reports as to the number and cost of the different kinds of buildings specified by the questionnaire sent out by the bureau.

This report is a summarization of the most important facts shown by the data collected. A complete report presenting the data in detail will be issued later in bulletin form.

Table 1 shows the total number and estimated cost of each of the different kinds of new buildings covered by permits issued in the 272 cities from which reports were received, the per cent that each kind is of the total number and the per cent that the cost of each kind is of the total cost, together with the average cost per building.

TABLE 1.—BUILDING PERMITS ISSUED IN 272 CITIES IN 1922, BY KIND OF BUILDINGS.

Kind of building.	Buildings for which permits were issued.		Cost of buildings.		Average cost per building.
	Number.	Per cent of total.	Amount.	Per cent of total.	
Residential buildings.					
One-family dwellings	183,538	40.2	$772,359,368	30.7	$4,208
Two-family dwellings	36,327	7.9	240,937,766	9.6	6,632
One-family and two-family dwellings with stores combined	5,011	1.1	46,233,305	1.8	9,226
Multi-family apartments	9,610	2.1	433,161,998	17.2	45,074
Multi-family apartments with stores combined	1,128	.2	33,507,395	1.3	29,705
Hotels	159	(1)	75,313,241	3.0	473,668
Lodging houses	71	(1)	1,461,997	.1	20,592
All other	147	(1)	24,199,869	1.0	164,625
Total	235,991	51.6	1,627,174,939	64.6	6,895
Nonresidential buildings.					
Amusement buildings	828	.2	54,130,970	2.1	65,376
Churches	1,099	.2	43,953,320	1.7	39,994
Factories and workshops	4,942	1.1	109,820,861	4.4	22,222
Public garages	3,574	.8	32,141,156	1.3	8,993
Private garages	161,262	35.3	74,851,452	3.0	464
Service stations	2,173	.5	6,838,479	.3	3,147
Institutions	273	.1	34,748,396	1.4	127,284
Office buildings	1,553	.3	154,924,935	6.1	99,758
Public buildings	211	(1)	19,979,258	.8	94,688
Public works and utilities	345	.1	24,085,142	1.0	69,812
Schools and libraries	954	.2	147,903,704	5.9	155,035
Sheds	25,121	5.5	7,544,686	.3	300
Stables and barns	1,415	.3	1,561,810	.1	1,104
Stores and warehouses	15,506	3.4	171,654,287	6.8	11,070
All other	1,838	.4	7,860,197	.3	4,276
Total	221,094	48.4	891,998,653	35.4	4,034
Grand total	457,085	100.0	2,519,173,592	100.0	5,511

[1] Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

The above table shows that 51.6 per cent of the total number of buildings for which permits were issued were residential buildings and that 64.6 per cent of the total estimated cost of all new buildings was spent for residence construction.

Of the 235,991 residential buildings projected 183,538, or 40.2 per cent of the total number of buildings, were one-family houses, and the sum of $772,359,368, or 30.7 per cent of the total estimated cost of all new buildings, was to be spent in their construction.

The average estimated cost of a one-family house was $4,208. In Bulletin No. 318 of the Bureau of Labor Statistics it is shown that the average estimated cost of a one-family house in 1921 was $3,967, and in 1920 was $4,319. This change in the average cost probably is due largely to fluctuation in the cost of building material. It must be borne in mind that the costs of buildings as stated in these tables are "estimated costs," the estimate being made by the builder when applying for his permit. Sometimes a change is made in the plans which necessitates a change in the cost of the buildings; again, the cost may be understated, in some cities because the fees for permits are based on the stated cost of the building, and in others because the

assessor looks over the records of the building inspector, some people hoping thus to keep the assessed value of the building low.

Among nonresidential buildings the greatest number erected were private garages. They comprised 35.3 per cent of the total number of new buildings, but their cost was only 3 per cent of the total cost. Private garages are almost always built on the same lot as a dwelling house and have come to be considered almost as much a necessity as a kitchen. In the nonresidential group the largest amount of money spent was for stores and warehouses, 6.8 per cent of the whole cost being spent for this class of buildings.

In spite of the fact that the present has been denounced as a "jazz age," it will be noticed that in 1922 there were more churches than amusement buildings built in cities having a population of 25,000 or over. Under the head of amusement buildings are listed theaters, motion-picture theaters, bathing beaches, grandstands, lodge rooms, etc. However, while there were more churches built than amusement buildings, over $10,000,000 more was spent for the construction of amusement buildings than for churches.

A careful study of this table shows that while only 51.6 per cent of the new buildings erected in 1922 were residential, this is of greater relative importance than the figure seems to indicate. For it will be seen that 35.3 per cent of the total number of new buildings were private garages and 5.5 per cent were sheds, and that while these two classes of buildings thus make up the vast majority of the nonresidential buildings erected, since their average cost was only $464 and $300, respectively, they were comparatively of minor importance. Therefore, although nonresidential buildings comprised 48.4 per cent of the total number of all new buildings, if the private garages and sheds are deducted, all other classes of nonresidential buildings combined account for only 7.6 of the total number of new buildings.

This preponderance of dwelling houses over large nonresidential buildings shows that even more effort was being made to alleviate the shortage of dwelling houses during 1922 than during 1921.

Table 2 shows in comparison the number and per cent of families provided for in each of the different kinds of dwellings in the 262 cities from which reports were received for both 1921 and 1922.

TABLE 2.—NUMBER AND PER CENT OF FAMILIES TO BE HOUSED IN DWELLINGS FOR WHICH PERMITS WERE ISSUED IN 262 IDENTICAL CITIES IN 1921 AND 1922, BY KIND OF DWELLING.

Kind of dwelling.	Number of buildings for which permits were issued.		Families provided for.			
			Number.		Per cent.	
	1921	1922	1921	1922	1921	1922
One-family dwellings	132,121	181,128	132,121	181,128	58.3	47.7
Two-family dwellings	17,117	36,239	34,234	72,478	15.1	19.1
One-family and two-family dwellings with stores combined	3,449	4,993	5,267	7,820	2.3	2.1
Multi-family apartments	4,924	9,592	52,139	110,789	23.0	29.2
Multi-family apartments with stores combined	571	1,079	2,898	7,133	1.3	1.9
Total	158,182	233,031	226,659	379,348	100.0	100.0

This table shows the tremendous increase in the number of families provided with new homes in 262 identical cities in 1922 as compared with 1921, the buildings for which permits were issued in 1922 providing for over 150,000 more families than were cared for by the buildings erected in 1921. Nearly 50,000 more families were to be housed in one-family dwellings in 1922 than in 1921. The number of families to be accommodated in apartment houses was more than double that of 1921.

One of the most interesting facts brought out by this table is the increase in the number of families to be housed in multi-family apartment houses. In 1921, 55,037, or 24.3 per cent of the new family accommodations, were in the two classes of apartment houses, while in 1922 the number had increased to 117,922 families, or 31.1 per cent of the total. There was also a marked gain in the number of families to be domiciled in two-family houses in 1922 as compared with the previous year, 72,478 families in 1922, composing 19.1 per cent of the total number of families provided for, being provided for in this class of dwellings as compared with 34,234, or 15.1 per cent, in 1921.

On the other hand, the percentage of the total number of families housed in one-family dwellings had fallen from 58.3 in 1921 to 47.7 in 1922.

This large increase in the percentage of families provided for in two-family dwellings and in apartment houses is in a large measure accounted for by the fact that a very small percentage of the new one-family dwellings erected were built to rent, and therefore a family which could not afford to build was almost compelled to live in an apartment or a two-family house. The two-family house is gaining quite a foothold in cities which previously have had few, if any, of this class of dwelling. It is more economical in construction, and it is a common practice for the owner to rent one part to help him pay for the building. Many of these houses are so constructed that with very little expense they can be converted into one-family dwellings, the owner's intention being to do this as soon as his home is paid for.

Table 3 shows the number and cost of each of the different kinds of buildings for the 262 cities from which reports were received in both 1921 and 1922 and the percentage of increase or decrease in the number and in the cost in 1922 as compared with 1921.

TABLE 3.—NUMBER AND COST OF BUILDINGS FOR WHICH PERMITS WERE ISSUED IN 262 IDENTICAL CITIES IN 1921 AND 1922, BY KIND OF BUILDING.

Kind of building.	Buildings for which permits were issued in—				Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (−) in 1922 as compared with 1921.	
	1921		1922			
	Number.	Cost.	Number.	Cost.	Number of buildings.	Cost of buildings.
Residential buildings.						
One-family dwellings	132,121	$524,832,308	181,128	$765,454,573	+37.1	+45.8
Two-family dwellings	17,117	114,682,111	36,239	240,399,216	+111.7	+109.6
One-family and two-family dwellings with stores combined	3,449	32,929,779	4,993	46,101,605	+44.8	+40.0
Multi-family apartments	4,924	206,904,311	9,592	432,766,448	+94.8	+109.2
Multi-family apartments with stores combined	571	13,996,679	1,079	33,185,795	+89.0	+137.1
Hotels	98	39,676,010	154	75,110,241	+57.1	+89.3
Lodging houses	27	476,559	70	1,452,497	+159.3	+204.8
All other	132	7,638,505	147	24,199,869	+11.4	+216.8
Total	158,439	941,136,262	233,402	1,618,670,244	+47.3	+72.0
Nonresidential buildings.						
Amusement buildings	777	62,511,117	807	52,672,270	+3.9	−15.7
Churches	918	29,291,444	1,043	42,699,670	+13.6	+45.8
Factories and workshops	3,754	73,517,959	4,835	108,731,201	+28.8	+47.9
Public garages	2,677	26,913,361	3,502	31,702,406	+30.8	+17.8
Private garages	118,854	59,472,234	159,029	73,016,670	+33.8	+22.8
Service stations	1,595	3,773,125	2,114	6,659,379	+32.5	+76.5
Institutions	161	19,132,734	269	34,667,796	+67.1	+81.2
Office buildings	1,492	114,111,049	1,499	154,165,785	+.5	+35.1
Public buildings	157	16,461,532	209	19,953,681	+33.1	+21.2
Public works and utilities	241	14,591,976	339	23,952,892	+40.7	+64.2
Schools and libraries	780	90,239,217	943	146,206,604	+20.9	+62.1
Sheds	27,397	8,938,243	24,389	7,420,401	−11.0	−17.0
Stables and barns	10,207	5,431,047	1,383	1,550,795	−86.5	−71.5
Stores	11,477	101,098,276	15,230	169,853,232	+32.7	+68.0
All other	5,366	12,872,101	1,639	7,760,141	−69.1	−39.7
Total	185,853	638,355,415	217,250	881,072,273	+16.9	+38.0
Grand total	344,292	1,579,491,677	450,652	2,499,742,517	+30.9	+58.3

It will be seen that there was a large increase in both the number and cost of all classes of residential buildings in 1922; the increase in number ranging from 11.4 per cent in the case of "all other" residential to 159.3 per cent for lodging houses, and the increase in cost from 40 per cent for one-family and two-family dwellings with stores combined to 216.8 per cent for "all other" residential.

In all cases, except two-family houses and one-family and two-family houses with stores combined, the increase in cost was greater than the increase in number. This would tend to show that construction costs had materially advanced since 1921. It will be seen that the number of one-family houses increased only 37.1 per cent while the number of two-family houses and apartment houses advanced 111.7 per cent and 94.8 per cent, respectively. There was an increase of 47.3 per cent in the total number of residential buildings in 1922 as compared with 1921, and an increase of 72 per cent in their cost.

The number of all the major classes of nonresidential building showed an increase (sheds, stables, and barns and "all other" nonresidential being of small importance). The increases ranged

from five-tenths of 1 per cent for office buildings to 67.1 per cent for institutions (hospitals, homes, etc.). The money expended in the construction of these major classes of nonresidential buildings, with one exception, also showed an increase. The exception was that of amusement buildings, which showed a decrease of 15.7 per cent. From this it would seem that a smaller type of theater and motion-picture theater was becoming more popular, which probably is especially true of the motion-picture house.

The total number of nonresidential buildings increased 16.9 per cent and the total cost 38 per cent. There was an increase of 30.9 per cent in the total number of all buildings (both residential and nonresidential) and 58.3 per cent in the total cost.

Table 4 shows the number of families provided for and the ratio of families provided for to each 10,000 population in each city from which data were received for the three years 1920, 1921, and 1922.

TABLE 4.—NUMBER OF FAMILIES PROVIDED FOR IN BUILDINGS FOR WHICH PERMITS WERE ISSUED AND RATIO OF FAMILIES PROVIDED FOR TO EACH 10,000 OF POPULATION, 1920, 1921, AND 1922, BY CITIES.

City.	Population, 1920.	Number of families provided for in buildings for which permits were issued.			Ratio of families provided for to each 10,000 of population.		
		1920	1921	1922	1920	1921	1922
Akron, Ohio	208,435	(1)	234	385	(1)	11.2	18.5
Alameda, Calif	28,806	(1)	152	196	(1)	52.8	68.0
Albany, N. Y	113,344	111	302	582	9.8	26.6	51.3
Allentown, Pa	73,502	113	102	229	15.4	13.9	31.2
Altoona, Pa	60,331	78	91	218	12.9	15.1	36.1
Amsterdam, N. Y	33,525	(1)	70	113	(1)	20.9	33.7
Anderson, Ind	29,767	(1)	37	56	(1)	12.4	18.8
Asheville, N. C	28,507	(1)	374	365	(1)	131.2	128.0
Atlanta, Ga	200,616	1,176	1,614	3,590	58.6	80.5	178.9
Atlantic City, N. J	50,707	137	366	1,057	27.0	72.2	208.5
Auburn, N. Y	36,192	35	28	42	9.7	7.7	11.6
Augusta, Ga	52,548	279	342	362	53.1	65.1	68.9
Aurora, Ill	36,397	45	126	263	12.4	34.6	72.3
Baltimore, Md	733,826	2,161	2,176	4,234	29.4	29.7	57.7
Bangor, Me	25,978	(1)	66	99	(1)	25.4	38.1
Battle Creek, Mich	36,164	89	127	186	24.6	35.1	51.4
Bay City, Mich	47,554	(1)	137	61	(1)	28.8	12.8
Bayonne, N. J	76,754	90	274	598	11.7	35.7	77.9
Bellingham, Wash	25,585	(1)	(1)	167	(1)	(1)	65.3
Berkeley, Calif	56,063	(1)	706	1,113	(1)	125.9	198.5
Bethlehem, Pa	50,358	40	82	94	7.9	16.3	18.7
Binghamton, N. Y	66,800	122	327	544	18.3	49.0	81.4
Birmingham, Ala	178,806	(1)	1,659	1,458	(1)	92.8	81.5
Bloomington, Ill	28,725	(1)	27	64	(1)	9.4	22.3
Boston, Mass	748,060	290	878	3,434	3.9	11.7	45.9
Bridgeport, Conn	143,535	333	404	250	23.2	28.1	17.4
Brockton, Mass	66,254	36	84	187	5.4	12.7	28.2
Brookline, Mass	37,748	35	118	626	9.3	31.3	165.8
Buffalo, N. Y	506,775	1,427	2,405	3,079	28.2	47.5	60.8
Butte, Mont	41,611	13	4	19	3.1	1.0	4.6
Cambridge, Mass	109,694	12	43	237	1.1	3.9	21.6
Camden, N. J	116,309	32	145	433	2.8	12.5	37.2
Canton, Ohio	87,091	312	403	660	35.8	46.3	75.8
Cedar Rapids, Iowa	45,566	189	331	448	41.5	72.6	98.3
Charleston, S. C	67,957	187	204	287	27.5	30.0	42.2
Charleston, W. Va	39,607	275	712	424	69.4	179.8	107.1
Charlotte, N. C	46,338	176	322	695	38.0	69.5	150.0
Chattanooga, Tenn	57,895	54	226	303	9.3	39.0	52.3
Chelsea, Mass	43,187	6	59	76	1.4	13.7	17.6
Chester, Pa	58,030	59	47	122	10.2	8.1	21.0
Chicago, Ill	2,701,705	3,003	12,252	24,227	11.1	45.3	89.7
Chicopee, Mass	36,214	166	238	342	45.8	65.7	94.4
Cicero, Ill	44,995	(1)	453	828	(1)	100.7	184.0
Cincinnati, Ohio	401,247	444	1,161	2,609	11.1	28.9	65.0
Clarksburg, W. Va	27,869	(1)	163	188	(1)	58.5	67.5
Cleveland, Ohio	796,841	2,768	4,084	5,153	34.7	51.3	64.7
Clifton, N. J	26,470	(1)	540	665	(1)	204.0	251.2
Colorado Springs, Colo	30,105	(1)	116	247	(1)	38.5	82.0
Columbia, S. C	37,524	138	241	318	36.8	64.2	84.7

[1] Not reported.

TABLE 4.—NUMBER OF FAMILIES PROVIDED FOR IN BUILDINGS FOR WHICH PERMITS WERE ISSUED, ETC.—Continued.

City.	Population, 1920.	Number of families provided for in buildings for which permits were issued.			Ratio of families provided for to each 10,000 of population.		
		1920	1921	1922	1920	1921	1922
Columbus, Ga	31,125	(1)	88	205	(1)	28.3	65.9
Columbus, Ohio	237,031	365	1,317	2,477	15.4	55.6	104.5
Council Bluffs, Iowa	36,162	216	423	509	59.7	117.0	140.8
Covington, Ky	57,121	78	198	323	13.7	34.7	56.5
Cranston, R. I	29,407	(1)	154	220	(1)	52.4	74.8
Cumberland, Md	29,837	(1)	132	139	(1)	44.2	46.6
Dallas, Tex	158,976	(1)	2,846	3,604	(1)	179.0	226.7
Danville, Ill	33,776	(1)	27	90	(1)	8.0	26.6
Davenport, Iowa	56,727	90	192	300	15.9	33.8	52.9
Dayton, Ohio	152,559	269	546	961	17.6	35.8	63.0
Decatur, Ill	43,818	293	335	469	66.9	76.5	107.0
Denver, Colo	256,491	445	1,624	2,726	17.3	63.3	106.3
Des Moines, Iowa	126,468	655	758	1,624	51.8	59.9	128.4
Detroit, Mich	993,678	6,466	6,743	16,813	65.1	67.9	169.2
Dubuque, Iowa	39,141	58	77	132	14.8	19.7	33.7
Duluth, Minn	98,917	(1)	637	1,050	(1)	64.4	106.1
East Chicago, Ind	35,967	(1)	168	226	(1)	46.7	62.9
East Cleveland, Ohio	27,292	(1)	472	855	(1)	172.9	313.3
Easton, Pa	33,813	(1)	59	96	(1)	17.4	28.4
East Orange, N. J	50,710	306	376	537	60.3	74.1	105.9
East St. Louis, Ill	66,767	84	260	368	12.6	38.9	55.1
Elgin, Ill	27,454	(1)	67	138	(1)	24.4	50.3
Elizabeth, N. J	95,783	241	514	766	25.2	53.7	80.0
El Paso, Tex	77,560	422	634	666	54.4	81.7	85.9
Erie, Pa	93,372	219	518	773	23.5	55.5	82.8
Evanston, Ill	37,234	(1)	415	832	(1)	111.5	223.5
Evansville, Ind	85,264	99	(1)	509	11.6	(1)	59.7
Everett, Mass	40,120	11	15	63	2.7	3.7	15.7
Everett, Wash	27,644	(1)	115	135	(1)	41.6	48.8
Fall River, Mass	120,485	42	141	505	3.5	11.7	41.9
Fitchburg, Mass	41,029	71	119	154	17.3	29.0	37.5
Flint, Mich	91,599	3,200	348	403	349.3	38.0	44.0
Fort Smith, Ark	28,870	(1)	318	359	(1)	110.1	124.3
Fort Wayne, Ind	86,549	280	586	1,406	32.4	67.7	162.5
Fort Worth, Tex	106,482	1,126	909	1,201	105.7	85.4	112.8
Fresno, Calif	45,086	(1)	894	1,053	(1)	198.3	233.6
Galveston, Tex	44,255	32	103	252	7.2	23.3	56.9
Gary, Ind	55,378	(1)	494	428	(1)	89.2	77.3
Grand Rapids, Mich	137,634	(1)	630	1,402	(1)	45.8	101.9
Green Bay, Wis	31,017	(1)	(1)	132	(1)	(1)	42.6
Hamilton, Ohio	39,675	235	192	161	59.2	48.4	40.6
Hammond, Ind	36,004	(1)	288	403	(1)	80.0	111.9
Hamtramck, Mich	48,615	(1)	276	509	(1)	56.8	104.7
Harrisburg, Pa	75,917	76	179	500	10.0	23.6	65.9
Hartford, Conn	138,036	(1)	717	1,148	(1)	51.9	83.2
Haverhill, Mass	53,884	110	117	175	20.4	21.7	32.5
Hazelton, Pa	32,277	(1)	38	147	(1)	11.8	45.5
Highland Park, Mich	46,499	(1)	250	520	(1)	53.8	111.8
Hoboken, N. J	68,166	1	0	27	.1	0.0	4.0
Holyoke, Mass	60,203	(1)	99	235	(1)	16.4	39.0
Houston, Tex	138,276	1,087	2,572	3,101	78.6	186.0	224.3
Huntington, W. Va	50,177	376	777	773	74.9	154.9	154.1
Indianapolis, Ind	314,194	1,183	2,565	4,131	37.7	81.6	131.5
Irvington, N. J	25,480	(1)	389	672	(1)	152.7	263.7
Jackson, Mich	48,374	142	108	331	29.4	22.3	68.4
Jacksonville, Fla	91,558	229	747	609	25.0	81.6	66.5
Jamestown, N. Y	38,917	(1)	(1)	161	(1)	(1)	41.4
Jersey City, N. J	298,103	82	970	1,776	2.8	32.5	59.6
Johnstown, Pa	67,327	520	593	199	77.2	88.1	29.6
Joplin, Mo	29,902	(1)	(1)	14	(1)	(1)	4.7
Kalamazoo, Mich	48,487	184	200	246	37.9	41.2	50.7
Kansas City, Kans	101,177	144	395	515	14.2	39.0	50.9
Kansas City, Mo	324,410	1,564	2,578	4,668	48.2	79.5	143.9
Kearney, N. J	26,724	(1)	205	295	(1)	76.7	110.4
Kenosha, Wis	40,472	201	128	157	49.7	31.6	38.8
Knoxville, Tenn	77,818	170	489	854	21.8	62.8	109.7
Kokomo, Ind	30,067	(1)	166	184	(1)	55.2	61.2
Lakewood, Ohio	41,732	(1)	877	1,743	(1)	210.2	417.7
Lancaster, Pa	53,150	29	73	516	5.5	13.7	97.1
Lansing, Mich	57,327	398	492	755	69.4	85.8	131.7
Lawrence, Mass	94,270	(1)	307	606	(1)	32.6	64.3
Lexington, Ky	41,534	123	127	267	29.6	30.6	64.3
Lima, Ohio	41,326	90	155	227	21.8	37.5	54.9
Lincoln, Nebr	54,948	(1)	241	415	(1)	43.9	75.5
Little Rock, Ark	65,142	(1)	749	936	(1)	115.0	143.7

[1] Not reported.

TABLE 4.—NUMBER OF FAMILIES PROVIDED FOR IN BUILDINGS FOR WHICH PERMITS WERE ISSUED, ETC.—Continued.

City.	Population, 1920.	Number of families provided for in buildings for which permits were issued.			Ratio of families provided for to each 10,000 of population.		
		1920	1921	1922	1920	1921	1922
Long Beach, Calif.	55,593	(1)	3,882	7,061	(1)	698.3	1,270.1
Lorain, Ohio	37,295	117	146	96	31.4	39.1	25.7
Los Angeles, Calif.	576,673	10,986	19,572	28,033	190.5	339.4	486.1
Louisville, Ky.	234,891	(1)	677	1,548	(1)	28.8	65.9
Lowell, Mass.	112,759	162	259	210	14.4	23.0	18.6
Lynchburg, Va.	30,070	(1)	50	104	(1)	16.6	34.6
Lynn, Mass.	99,148	20	140	135	2.0	14.1	13.6
McKeesport, Pa.	46,781	35	127	190	7.5	27.1	40.6
Macon, Ga.	52,995	90	162	254	17.0	30.6	47.9
Madison, Wis.	38,378	80	283	603	20.8	73.7	157.1
Malden, Mass.	49,103	108	94	89	22.0	19.1	18.1
Mansfield, Ohio	27,824	(1)	72	145	(1)	25.9	52.1
Manchester, N. H.	78,384	91	210	273	11.6	26.8	34.8
Marion, Ohio	27,891	(1)	44	68	(1)	15.8	24.4
Medford, Mass.	39,038	112	256	501	28.7	65.6	128.3
Memphis, Tenn.	162,351	479	1,245	2,244	29.5	76.7	138.2
Meriden, Conn.	29,867	(1)	71	117	(1)	23.8	39.2
Miami, Fla.	29,571	(1)	(1)	959	(1)	(1)	324.3
Milwaukee, Wis.	457,147	784	2,212	2,964	17.1	48.4	64.8
Minneapolis, Minn.	380,582	1,572	3,574	4,663	41.3	93.9	122.5
Mobile, Ala.	60,777	77	140	135	12.7	23.0	22.2
Moline, Ill.	30,734	(1)	38	69	(1)	12.4	22.5
Montclair, N. J.	28,810	(1)	276	503	(1)	95.8	174.6
Montgomery, Ala.	43,464	53	83	105	12.2	19.1	24.2
Mount Vernon, N. Y.	42,726	156	246	834	36.5	57.6	195.2
Muncie, Ind.	36,524	65	64	103	17.8	17.5	28.2
Muskegon, Mich.	36,570	324	129	115	88.6	35.3	31.4
Muskogee, Okla.	30,277	(1)	260	318	(1)	85.9	105.0
Nashville, Tenn.	118,342	185	470	696	15.6	39.7	58.8
Newark, N. J.	414,524	397	1,393	2,892	9.6	33.6	69.8
Newark, Ohio	26,718	(1)	52	108	(1)	19.5	40.4
New Bedford, Mass.	121,217	255	522	880	21.0	43.1	72.6
New Brunswick, N. J.	32,779	(1)	129	170	(1)	39.4	51.9
New Britain, Conn.	59,316	176	215	293	29.7	36.2	49.4
Newburg, N. Y.	30,366	(1)	64	136	(1)	21.1	44.8
New Haven, Conn.	162,537	257	444	747	15.8	27.3	46.0
New London, Conn.	25,688	(1)	89	101	(1)	34.6	39.3
New Orleans, La.	387,219	791	2,335	3,426	20.4	60.3	88.5
Newport, Ky.	29,317	(1)	12	9	(1)	4.1	3.1
Newport, R. I.	30,255	(1)	45	40	(1)	14.9	13.2
Newport News, Va.	35,596	(1)	63	19	(1)	17.7	5.3
New Rochelle, N. Y.	36,213	170	247	532	46.9	68.2	146.9
Newton, Mass.	46,054	123	249	583	26.7	54.1	126.6
New York, N. Y.	5,620,048	12,521	51,360	91,164	22.3	91.4	162.2
Niagara Falls, N. Y.	50,760	150	286	422	29.6	56.3	83.1
Norfolk, Va.	115,777	359	419	732	31.0	36.2	63.2
Norristown, Pa.	32,319	(1)	31	135	(1)	9.6	41.8
Norwalk, Conn.	27,743	(1)	72	110	(1)	26.0	39.6
Oakland, Calif.	216,261	1,120	2,681	4,313	51.8	124.0	199.4
Oak Park, Ill.	39,858	192	720	1,065	48.2	180.6	267.2
Ogden, Utah	32,804	(1)	477	413	(1)	145.4	125.9
Oklahoma City, Okla.	91,295	(1)	1,724	1,398	(1)	188.8	153.1
Omaha, Nebr.	191,601	678	1,298	1,784	35.4	67.7	93.1
Orange, N. J.	33,268	(1)	55	116	(1)	16.5	34.9
Oshkosh, Wis.	33,162	(1)	64	78	(1)	19.3	23.5
Pasadena, Calif.	45,354	(1)	1,262	1,225	(1)	278.3	270.1
Passaic, N. J.	63,841	168	426	376	26.3	66.7	58.9
Paterson, N. J.	135,875	156	587	685	11.5	43.2	50.4
Pawtucket, R. I.	64,248	115	277	466	17.9	43.1	72.5
Pensacola, Fla.	31,035	(1)	(1)	98	(1)	(1)	31.6
Peoria, Ill.	76,121	154	300	432	20.2	39.4	56.8
Perth Amboy, N. J.	41,707	31	119	77	7.4	26.4	18.5
Petersburg, Va.	31,012	(1)	74	119	(1)	23.9	38.4
Philadelphia, Pa.	1,823,779	(1)	2,406	10,453	(1)	13.2	57.3
Phoenix, Ariz.	29,053	(1)	407	714	(1)	140.1	245.8
Pittsburgh, Pa.	588,343	553	1,335	2,711	9.4	22.7	46.1
Pittsfield, Mass.	41,763	42	43	110	10.1	10.3	26.3
Plainfield, N. J.	27,700	(1)	135	265	(1)	48.7	95.7
Pontiac, Mich.	34,273	(1)	60	35	(1)	17.5	10.2
Port Huron, Mich.	25,944	(1)	219	173	(1)	84.4	66.7
Portland, Me.	69,272	(1)	207	396	(1)	29.9	57.2
Portland, Oreg.	258,288	(1)	3,136	3,658	(1)	121.4	141.6
Portsmouth, Ohio	33,011	(1)	113	261	(1)	34.2	79.1
Portsmouth, Va.	54,387	67	121	103	12.3	22.2	18.9

[1] Not reported.

TABLE 4.—NUMBER OF FAMILIES PROVIDED FOR IN BUILDINGS FOR WHICH PERMITS WERE ISSUED, ETC.—Concluded.

City.	Population, 1920.	Number of families provided for in buildings for which permits were issued.			Ratio of families provided for to each 10,000 of population.		
		1920	1921	1922	1920	1921	1922
Poughkeepsie, N. Y.	35,000	55	60	128	15.7	17.1	35.6
Providence, R. I.	237,595	187	566	1,135	7.9	23.8	47.8
Pueblo, Colo.	43,050	100	288	250	23.2	66.9	58.1
Quincy, Ill.	35,978	11	20	81	3.1	5.6	22.5
Quincy, Mass.	47,876	141	404	667	29.5	84.4	139.3
Racine, Wis.	58,593	216	169	191	36.9	28.8	32.6
Reading, Pa.	107,784	122	(1)	333	11.3	(1)	30.9
Revere, Mass.	28,823	(1)	152	179	(1)	52.7	62.1
Richmond, Ind.	26,765	(1)	41	84	(1)	15.3	31.4
Richmond, Va.	171,567	222	741	1,363	12.9	43.2	79.4
Roanoke, Va.	50,842	136	351	563	26.7	69.0	110.7
Rochester, N. Y.	295,750	336	1,319	1,865	11.4	44.6	63.1
Rockford, Ill.	65,651	198	351	380	30.2	53.5	57.9
Rock Island, Ill.	35,177	60	94	128	17.1	26.7	36.4
Sacramento, Calif.	65,908	274	737	1,187	41.6	111.8	180.1
Saginaw, Mich.	61,903	398	251	509	64.3	40.5	82.2
St. Joseph, Mo.	77,939	388	7	225	49.8	.9	28.9
St. Louis, Mo.	772,897	(1)	2,072	4,013	(1)	26.8	51.9
St. Paul, Minn.	234,698	(1)	2,194	2,535	(1)	93.5	108.0
Salem, Mass.	42,529	10	21	42	2.4	4.9	9.9
Salt Lake City, Utah	118,110	379	826	893	32.1	69.9	75.6
San Antonio, Tex.	161,379	(1)	1,718	1,654	(1)	106.5	102.5
San Diego, Calif.	74,683	(1)	1,450	1,900	(1)	194.2	254.4
San Francisco, Calif.	508,676	1,098	2,683	6,283	21.6	52.7	123.5
San Jose, Calif.	39,642	(1)	300	388	(1)	75.7	97.9
Savannah, Ga.	83,252	(1)	347	295	(1)	41.7	35.4
Schenectady, N. Y.	88,723	89	193	336	10.0	21.8	37.9
Scranton, Pa.	137,783	(1)	75	406	(1)	5.4	29.5
Seattle, Wash.	315,312	(1)	1,961	2,920	(1)	62.2	92.6
Sheboygan, Wis.	30,955	(1)	90	177	(1)	29.1	57.2
Shreveport, La.	43,874	643	1,157	1,270	146.6	263.7	289.5
Sioux City, Iowa	71,227	(1)	638	728	(1)	89.6	102.2
Sioux Falls, S. Dak.	25,202	(1)	303	357	(1)	120.2	141.7
Somerville, Mass.	93,091	5	204	401	.5	21.9	43.1
South Bend, Ind.	70,983	549	665	1,598	77.3	93.7	225.1
Spokane, Wash.	104,437	(1)	438	517	(1)	41.9	49.5
Springfield, Ill.	59,183	169	210	473	28.6	35.5	79.9
Springfield, Mass.	129,614	463	827	1,723	35.7	63.8	132.9
Springfield, Mo.	39,631	(1)	194	298	(1)	49.0	75.2
Springfield, Ohio	60,840	240	253	357	39.4	41.6	58.7
Stamford, Conn.	35,096	185	190	397	52.7	54.1	113.1
Stockton, Calif.	40,296	(1)	624	583	(1)	154.9	144.7
Superior, Wis.	39,671	32	104	96	8.1	26.2	24.2
Syracuse, N. Y.	171,717	(1)	627	968	(1)	36.5	56.4
Tacoma, Wash.	96,965	447	843	862	46.1	86.9	88.9
Tampa, Fla.	51,608	(1)	(1)	422	(1)	(1)	81.8
Taunton, Mass.	37,137	(1)	(1)	129	(1)	(1)	34.7
Terre Haute, Ind.	66,083	74	758	405	11.2	114.7	61.3
Toledo, Ohio	243,164	(1)	600	1,126	(1)	24.7	46.3
Topeka, Kans.	50,022	63	188	342	12.6	37.6	68.4
Trenton, N. J.	119,289	170	317	556	14.3	26.6	46.6
Troy, N. Y.	72,013	34	86	170	4.7	11.9	23.6
Tulsa, Okla.	72,075	1,328	1,138	1,753	184.3	157.9	243.2
Utica, N. Y.	94,156	91	478	842	9.7	50.8	89.4
Waltham, Mass.	30,915	(1)	137	114	(1)	44.3	36.9
Warren, Ohio	27,050	(1)	171	176	(1)	63.2	65.1
Washington, D. C.	437,571	(1)	2,195	5,266	(1)	50.2	120.3
Waterbury, Conn.	91,715	320	271	284	34.9	29.5	31.0
Waterloo, Iowa	36,230	114	111	106	31.5	30.6	29.3
Watertown, N. Y.	31,285	(1)	88	122	(1)	28.1	39.0
West Hoboken, N. J.	40,074	3	56	138	.7	14.0	34.4
West New York, N. J.	29,926	(1)	269	353	(1)	89.9	118.0
Wheeling, W. Va.	56,208	66	261	352	11.7	46.4	62.6
Wichita, Kans.	72,217	(1)	1,336	1,366	(1)	185.0	189.2
Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	73,833	30	82	506	4.1	11.1	68.5
Wilmington, Del.	110,168	83	66	128	7.5	6.0	11.6
Wilmington, N. C.	33,372	(1)	165	184	(1)	49.4	55.1
Winston-Salem, N. C.	48,395	215	356	542	44.4	73.6	112.0
Woonsocket, R. I.	43,496	159	369	619	36.6	84.8	142.3
Worcester, Mass.	179,754	453	715	820	25.2	39.8	45.6
Yonkers, N. Y.	100,176	(1)	433	686	(1)	43.2	68.5
York, Pa.	47,152	21	66	182	4.5	14.0	38.6
Youngstown, Ohio	132,358	333	724	734	25.2	54.7	55.5
Zanesville, Ohio	29,569	(1)	56	145	(1)	18.9	49.0
Total (162 cities, 1920)	27,914,946	81,124			29.1		
Total (262 cities, 1921)	36,784,807		226,659			61.6	
Total (272 cities, 1922)	37,252,627			382,272			102.6

[1] Not reported.

The table shows complete reports from 162 cities in 1920. These cities had a population of 27,914,946 and homes were provided in the new buildings for 81,124 families, which is at the rate of 29.1 families per 10,000 of population. In 1921 schedules were received from 262 cities and the number of families provided for by the new building was 226,659. The population of these cities shown by the census of 1920 was 36,784,807. The ratio of families provided for was therefore 61.6 per 10,000 of population. The returns for 1922 are complete for 272 cities, having a population of 37,252,627 and providing for 382,272 families, a ratio of 102.6 per 10,000 of population.

It will be noticed that there is great unevenness in the distribution per 10,000 by cities and even by general sections of the country; for instance such wide variations as the following occurred in 1922:

Butte, Mont.	4.6	East Cleveland, Ohio	313.3
Hoboken, N. J.	4.0	Lakewood, Ohio	417.7
Joplin, Mo.	4.7	Long Beach, Calif.	1,270.1
Newport, Ky.	3.1	Los Angeles, Calif.	486.1

The older cities seem to lag behind the newer communities; for example, Boston showed a ratio of 3.9 families to each 10,000 of population in 1920; this increased to 11.7 in 1921 and to 45.9 in 1922. On the other hand, in Los Angeles the ratio was 190.5 in 1920, 339.4 in 1921 and 486.1 in 1922. This difference is partly explained by the fact that Boston has used up most of the available building space in the city limits and has no way to expand in territory, as it is almost entirely surrounded by smaller cities and towns having their own municipal government.

New York City shows a remarkable increase in the ratio of building to population, advancing from 22.3 per 10,000 in 1920 to 91.4 in 1921 and 162.2 in 1922. That is to say, 12,521 families were provided for in 1921, as compared with 51,360 in 1921 and 91,164 in 1922. In the other two cities in the country with a population of over one million there was a material advance, Chicago increasing its ratio from 11.1 in 1920 to 45.3 in 1921 and 89.7 in 1922, while the ratio in Philadelphia increased from 13.2 in 1921 to 57.3 in 1922.

On the other hand, the ratio is decreasing in a few places. In Muskegon, Mich., for instance, the ratio was 88.6 in 1920, in 1921 it had dropped to 35.3, and in 1922 to 31.4. Birmingham, Ala., showed a slight decrease, dropping from 92.8 in 1921 to 81.5 in 1922. Johnstown, Pa., Newport News, Va., and Charleston, W. Va., are among the few other places which show a decrease for 1922 as compared with 1921.

Additional information regarding building permits issued in the United States may be obtained from Bulletins Nos. 295 and 318 of the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for July, 1921, April, 1922, and October, 1922.

Suspension of Building to Stabilize the Building Industry.

MEETING in New York City on May 16, 1923, the board of governors of the American Construction Council inaugurated a campaign for the temporary suspension of all except urgently necessary building, for the regular diffusion of information as to building costs and their probable trend, for the curtailment of credit for speculative building until the present crisis moderates, and, in general, for the control and regularization of the building industry. This action, taken because of uneasiness over the rapidly mounting costs of construction, is merely the latest development in a movement which has been going on for some months past. With the beginning of the year the more conservative building journals began to point out that while prospects were good for a year of intense building activity, there was a danger in the increasing costs of material and labor, which, unless they could be checked, threatened to produce a slump like that of the second half of 1920. If building costs should rise too high, there might be a buyers' strike and a period of deflation which would harm not only the building interests but the general prosperity of the country as a whole. Early in the season came an indication that their fears were not imaginary when it was announced that the erection of a 3,000-room hotel projected for Chicago had been given up temporarily because of the tremendous rise in costs between the inception of the project and the time to begin building.

The cause of delay is the fact, among others, that the total cost of steel required has raised fully $800,000 from April 1, 1922, to February 1, 1923. Since February 1 there has been another advance which, according to the Economist, would add $100,000 more to the cost.[1]

Shortly after this came the publication of Secretary Hoover's letter to the President recommending the withholding of contracts for State and Federal building until the demand upon the building facilities of the country should have somewhat diminished (see MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, May, 1923, p. 184), and this in turn was followed by reports from various parts of the country of projects relinquished or delayed because of high costs.

In New York the situation developed rather more rapidly than elsewhere. By April it was pretty generally recognized that far more new construction had been undertaken than could be adequately handled with the men and materials available, and keen competition set in for such supplies of both as could be obtained. In regard to labor, the situation was made worse by the fact that there was no recognized standard wage rate established by agreement between the employers and workers. Labor leaders were anxious to establish a new official rate, but the employers considered it unwise to do so.

After several conferences the employers have decided not to sanction an official revision of building trade wages, and are determined to maintain this position. In view of existing conditions in the local building labor field, however, caused by the keen competition for workers, they have tacitly determined to pay higher wages but in the form of a bonus rather than an established and official scale which must still remain in force after the emergency has passed.[2]

[1] The American Contractor, Mar. 10, 1923, p. 16.
[2] New York Record and Guide, Apr. 21, 1923, p. 489.

Under this arrangement the employees were free to get what they could, and the employers paid what they must. As the supply of some kinds of workers was not nearly equal to the demand, employers bid against each other, and ran wages up to sensational heights in some instances. Labor was attracted from other places, but still the supply was insufficient.

In regard to materials, the situation was much the same. Delays in transportation were added to difficulties in production, and the available supply was entirely inadequate for the building program which had been begun. A committee of 15 was appointed to consider the situation and suggest remedies, and at their first meeting, held early in May, it is hard to say whether the complaints against wages or material prices were the more bitter. Contracts for materials made earlier in the year when prices were lower proved small protection against increases, it was said.

A contract for steel made last January, at the prices used in the estimates for work under way is of little avail to-day, when deliveries can not be secured without premiums, without heavy expenses for tracing of cars and expediting of deliveries. Your sand and gravel dealers have contracted to deliver their material at $2.50 per yard in December, but of what value is that contract when they are deluged with orders for $3, $3.50, and even $4 per yard?

The manufacturer of material, like the laborer, is human, and will find a way to make deliveries to the last man who pays him best, so that costs are skying, not only from the more dramatic demands of labor, but also from the higher prices of materials and deliveries.[3]

At this same meeting an architect reported that he had already advised against beginning work on projects costing approximately $5,000,000. Within a week came the announcement that one of the large orphanages of the city had decided to postpone plans for new buildings to cost approximately $4,000,000, and that the trustees of Columbia University had agreed to suspend temporarily work on a $10,000,000 program they had intended to undertake. Similar reports came in from Cleveland, Chicago, and other parts of the country. Nevertheless, neither wages nor material prices showed any decreases, and the situation was rather chaotic.

It was at this point that the governors of the American Construction Council met to formulate a policy. This body, which is made up of representatives of all the different interests concerned with the building industry, felt that a serious crisis faced the industry. If the building activities of the country continued to progress at the present rate, the demand would soon so far outstrip the supply that prices would become actually prohibitive and a period of depression and disorganization must ensue. The grounds for this belief were set forth at some length:

The opinion here expressed is based upon a number of factors, each pointing to the same conclusion, which may be outlined as follows:

First. The volume of construction projected so far this year exceeds the volume of the same period of last year by more than 40 per cent, and the experience of 1922 demonstrated that during that year the facilities for producing materials and conducting field operations were taxed about to the limit. Production in the basic materials is not only limited by the available supply of labor, but like other industries, by inadequate transportation. Construction likewise is limited by these factors, and in addition, by the restricted supply of manufactured products and materials from the basic industries.

[3] New York Record and Guide, May 5, 1923, p. 579.

Second. Stocks of materials on hand in practically all of the materials entering construction are lower than last year, while the unfilled orders are greater. Recent figures showed that orders on hand for common and face brick were about 60 per cent higher and the stocks on hand about 16 per cent lower than in 1922. Orders on hand for bathtubs, lavatories, and other sanitary ware ran 78 per cent higher and stocks on hand 40 per cent lower than last year. From the construction field reports indicate that material salesmen are slackening their solicitation for orders to a great extent, and that manufacturers are, in many instances, unwilling to accept additional orders for any reasonable period of delivery.

Third. Material prices are rapidly rising. Contractors in different parts of the country report that jobbers and manufacturers are unable to maintain their quotations for more than a day or two at a time on certain manufactured products; and it appears that the current demand has reached that stage where competition has passed from the seller to the buyer. The latter is bidding for materials and sending the prices upward. Furthermore, to aggravate the situation, deliveries are becoming uncertain, and recourse is being taken to the practice of overordering for the job.

Fourth. Labor rates, like the prices of materials, are rapidly increasing. In the building trades especially, employers are placed in the position of bidding for services and paying bonuses to an extent in many instances even greater than in 1920. Regardless of what the different opinions may be as to the reasonableness of a wage of $15 or $18 per day for skilled mechanics, we know that under present conditions these scales will soon stop building operations and leave the laborer in a more unfavorable position than he will occupy under steady employment at a lower wage.

Fifth. The production capacity of various industries is limited and appears unable to meet a continuation of the present demand. Even where plant facilities are adequate the output may be limited by labor and transportation, and in most of the basic industries sufficient expansion can not possibly be made to care for the demand. Under these circumstances the manufacturer's influence on prices is very limited and a wide variation or spread takes place between his prices and the ultimate price to the consumer. This spread is already under way.[4]

To meet the situation created by these conditions the council recommends several lines of action. Speeding up of production and of transportation is urged, cooperation of shippers with railroads to obtain the most and quickest service from the cars in use is advised, labor is urged to drop all restrictions on output, the holding up of all but absolutely necessary building is recommended, and publicity as to costs is suggested as a means of letting people know when it is wise to build and when to refrain. The index figure of the wholesale prices of building materials, which in 1922 stood at 155 in March and 156 in April, reached 198 in March, 1923, and in April advanced to 204. Under these circumstances, the council considers it doubtful whether new structures offer a sound field for investment, and it calls on editors throughout the country to cooperate in making costs known, so that the investor may be in a position to judge.

If these men will publish the index number of construction for the country or for any particular locality and call the attention of their readers to the rising trend of construction costs, it is highly probable that they can effectively influence the demand. They may in this manner bring about a conscious steadying of the market that will avoid too much inflation.[5]

The banking interests of the country are especially urged to curtail loans on all speculative building. This action, the council suggests, will exercise considerable influence in discouraging unnecessary projects, and in bringing the volume of building into proper relation to the available supply of workers and materials.

The meeting of the council is too recent, as yet, for the results of its action to be definitely known, but apparently all the interests concerned are cooperating to carry out its suggested plans. Numer-

[4] New York Times, May 17, pp. 1, 3.
[5] Idem, p. 3.

ous reports are current of building projects delayed for more favorable conditions. The New York Journal of Commerce reports (May 25, 1923) that the financial agencies are carrying out the line of action proposed for them:

> Banking, mortgage, and building loan interests are reported to be making it more difficult to obtain money for speculative building. Mortgage companies, which a short time ago were lending 60 per cent and more of the total cost of new building, have cut their loans to 50 and even 40 per cent. The extent to which some of the institutions have gone is indicated in the statement made by officials of the Lawyers' Mortgage Co., who said that the company had stopped all new building loans two weeks ago.

Organized labor, through its representatives, took part in the action of the council, and independently is appealing for reliable official publicity concerning costs. The head of the Building Trades Council, appearing before the Emergency Building Committee on May 29, urged that it should lend its help to secure Government intervention in the building crisis. One of the matters in which the Government could best help was given as the collection and publication of facts. The kind of facts desired were set forth in some detail:

> The publication by the Bureau of Labor Statistics or the Department of Commerce, at the earliest possible moment and at frequent intervals thereafter, the following current data: First, the relative proportion of the total cost of typical buildings made up by materials, wages, contractors' profits, architects' and engineers' fees; second, the rates and their fluctuations of each of these elements in construction costs; and third, the relation of each of these to their 1914 level and to subsequent high and low points.[5]

In the same appeal the practice of running up wages by means of bonuses was strongly deprecated.

> The Building Trades Council is, in fact, absolutely opposed to bonuses of all kinds. We want the scale, no more, no less. We want stabilization by a continuance of the same scale for a period as far ahead as practicable. We do not want and do not expect to continue the bonuses.[6]

One of the most definite results of the council's deliberations is an arrangement for publishing a weekly forecast of the building industry for the entire country and for various sections, much in the same manner as reports are now published by the Weather Bureau. These reports and forecasts are to be based upon data gathered by the council itself from constructors and material manufacturers, to which will be added special statistics furnished by the Department of Commerce, the Department of Labor, and the chambers of commerce of the United States. By consulting this report, which is to be issued weekly, any intending builder can see just what are the conditions in his own locality, and whether or not the time is propitious for beginning his project. If prices are rising and labor is scarce, he will naturally be inclined to hold off, thus lessening the upward movement of costs; if the contrary condition prevails, he will just as naturally be inclined to launch his undertaking, thus retarding the downward swing. The whole program is intended to stabilize the course of the industry, to level down its peaks and level up its depressions, making a comparatively steady volume of construction, avoiding the crises and slumps which have been painfully in evidence of late years. It is said to be the first definite attempt yet made to unite all the factors of an industry in an effort to control the business cycle.

[5] New York Times, May 30, p. 1.

State-Assisted Housing in Queensland and Victoria.

Queensland.

IN 1919 the Queensland Legislature passed an act intended to facilitate the provision of homes for workers, which apparently was rather unworkable. Little or nothing was done under it, and as the housing shortage continued, the demand became insistent for more effective legislation. Accordingly, in 1922 the act was amended in a number of particulars, and in its revised form was assented to in October. The Queensland Industrial Gazette for October, 1922 (pp. 772–776), gives it in full. Its most striking feature is that the Government may not only give aid to those wishing to build but also goes into the housing business itself, buying and holding land, improving it for housing and settlement purposes, making roads, setting apart reservations for parks, recreational purposes, churches, and public buildings, putting up houses, and selling or leasing them, and leasing land, whenever circumstances seem to justify such measures. The minister, it is stated, is for the purposes of this act the representative of the Crown, and as such "shall have and may exercise all the powers, privileges, rights, and authorities of the Crown."

Provision is made for creating a fund, to be known as the "Workers' Homes Fund," which is to be administered by the minister. It is to be made up of money appropriated by Parliament and of "all purchase money, interest, rents, and penalties, and of all other moneys whatsoever received or raised by the minister under this act." The minister is specifically authorized to raise money by the sale of bonds, up to the value of £500,000 ($2,433,250, par), which shall be secured by the Government revenues, and which are not to run more than 20 years. Interest and any other conditions concerning the bonds may be fixed by the governor in council. The fund is to be used for any and all expenses of the housing program.

> There shall be payable out of the fund, without further appropriation other than this act, all payments in respect of the acquisition of land or for the erection of homes, and all expenses for the administration of this act, and all other payments made by the minister in accordance with this act.

The governor in council is given power to set aside any vacant Crown land for use under this act. The minister may acquire, in addition, "either by agreement or compulsorily," any land not used for public parks or recreation purposes, which he considers is required for carrying out the intent of this legislation. Such land is to be paid for from the fund, and provision is made against its being valued at an excessive figure.

Over land acquired by either of these means the minister is given wide powers, practically being authorized to do anything which may be considered as related to housing, from selling or leasing individual parcels of ground to workers wishing to build homes for themselves to laying out and constructing garden cities or suburbs. The one restriction is that land or houses when erected shall be transferred only to workers to be used for homes. The only exception to this rule is that under certain circumstances, the minister may offer, for lease, land "for the purposes of erecting buildings thereon for business

or public use." A careful definition of the term "worker" is given in the act.

Worker.—A person who at the time of entering into a contract of sale of a home under this act—

(*a*) Is employed in work of any kind; and

(*b*) Is not the owner (nor is the husband or wife of such person the owner) of a dwelling house in Queensland or elsewhere; and

(*c*) Whose income, after the allowance therefrom of the deductions permitted by section 13 of "The Income Tax Act of 1902" as amended by subsequent acts, does not exceed 260 pounds [$1,265, par] per annum.

Should more than one person apply for a given home, the minister is to decide which is eligible. Should all be qualified, the matter may be decided by lot. The price of each home is set by the minister, but may not exceed the capital cost, which is defined as the actual cost of the erection or acquisition of the home, plus 5 per cent on that sum from a date set by the minister up to the date of the execution of the contract of sale. The purchaser must make a first payment of 5 per cent of the total price, the remainder being paid off in monthly installments. Normally these payments are so planned as to pay off the balance of the purchase money, plus interest at 5 per cent, in 25 years, and to cover also expenses for insurance, painting and repairs, and rent for the land, which is leased, not sold. Under special circumstances, the minister is authorized to allow a longer period for amortization. If the purchaser prefers, he may pay larger installments and thus shorten the period of payment. On paying the first deposit, the purchaser is entitled to enter into possession of the house and to receive a perpetual lease of the ground. In general, when the contract of sale is drawn up the purchaser must insure his life for a sum sufficient to cover the amount unpaid on the property and assign the policy to the minister as security for the debt. The minister may, however, dispense with this security, if he considers that circumstances justify him in doing so.

Special provisions are made as to the duties of the purchaser during the period through which he is paying for the home. He must keep up the property, meet any local rates or taxes, and observe all the conditions of his contract. He may not sell or let the house without the consent of the minister, and in either case must give adequate security that he will discharge the obligations he originally assumed. Should the minister become convinced, after inquiry, that the purchaser or any person residing in his house "is a person of bad repute, or from his habits and conduct is an undesirable neighbor," he may cancel the contract of sale and take back the property, using his own discretion as to whether he will return the whole or any part of the money paid in.

The Queensland Gazette for February, 1923, contains (p. 104) in great detail the regulations worked out for the functioning of the act, and also a discussion of some of its features by the Minister for Works, in which it is pointed out that the scheme is really a rent purchase one, and that the low cost and the insurance features would enable many people to secure houses who could not think of buying them under less favorable conditions.

Take, for example, a house that would cost about £500. All charges would work out at less than £1 a week—that would be interest for the loan, redemption of the loan, fire and life insurances, repairs and painting, and rent of the land.

Land, it is stated, had been obtained in several different localities, and operations would shortly begin.

Victoria.

FACING the general shortage of housing after the war, Victoria passed an act which came into effect in 1921, and which, according to the Queensland Industrial Gazette for September, 1922 (p. 667), has rendered substantial service in meeting the need, while the extent to which it has been utilized proves that there is a wide demand for five and six room dwellings which can be secured under easy time payment terms.

In a period of little more than a year, 620 houses have been erected under the conditions of the new law, and in addition, 380 sites for additional dwellings have been approved. The total number of applications made under the act, including those for the houses completed and in prospect, is about 1,200. Further applications are coming in at the rate of 20 weekly.

Under this law, the savings bank commissioners are the agents for carrying on the building program. The conditions under which they will erect houses are thus summarized:

Applicant must not own a dwelling house in Victoria or elsewhere, and must not be in receipt of an income of more than £400 [$1,947, par] a year. A married woman will not be eligible for a house under this clause unless her husband is also eligible; but only one of them may obtain a house.

The capital cost of dwelling house and land, including outbuildings, fences, lighting, water supply, drainage, sewerage, and all other costs, must not exceed £800 [$3,893, par].

Applicant must provide at least one-tenth of the total capital cost.

Amounts advanced by the commissioners for providing such housing are to draw interest at 7¼ per cent a year, and are to be paid off in monthly installments at the rate of 9 per cent a year. By these payments the total debt, principal and interest, will be discharged in 22 years and 8 months.

Building Guilds and the Guild Movement in England.

THE MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW in its issue for December, 1921, contained an article describing the progress of the building guilds of England up to about the middle of that year, and in its issue for January, 1923, summarized a study of the guilds, published in the Quarterly Journal of Economics, which had been made principally in the months of March and April, 1922. Since this latter study was made the building guilds have suffered reverses which have led to a fundamental change in their plan of organization, and coincidentally the guild movement in general has widened its field and is conducting a vigorous campaign for a still further extension of its activities.

During 1921, it will be remembered, the building guilds had associated themselves into the National Building Guild, with a central body which, acting through a national committee, made contracts, kept up staffs of technical and professional workers, and was legally responsible for the execution of all contracts and for the administra-

tion of the continuous-pay fund. Under this body were regional councils and local committees, the latter having practically full control of matters in their own districts, except for the contract-making power. Even as to this, they were authorized to undertake small jobs on their own responsibility, but in general contracts were made and supervised by the central committee.

During 1921 and even into the first part of 1922, the guilds seemed to be prospering. At a national conference, held in April, 1922, it was reported that the National Building Guild now had 140 committees in existence, of which about half were actively at work, and had construction under way to the value of approximately £2,500,000 ($12,166,250, par).[1] The Building Guildsman, quoted in the Guild Socialist for July, 1922, gives a list of the maximum sum contracts being handled by the guilds for the housing authorities, showing that the new contracts undertaken in the last few months had reached a total of £590,424 ($2,873,298, par), covering housing spread over 34 separate districts. "These figures," it observes, "indicate a steady development despite the shutting down of the State housing program. The work in hand, moreover, could be much more if credit difficulties did not stand in the way."

The last sentence was ominous, for already the National Building Guild was struggling against financial difficulties which increased until in November, 1922, a temporary receiver was appointed and its affairs are still in his hands. The underlying cause of the trouble seems to have been that the guilds began without capital, and never at any time had sufficient for the volume of business they carried on. In their early days the Wholesale Cooperative Society financed them largely, but as their work increased it grew less willing to do this, and in the spring of 1922 refused further accommodation, except on the earlier contracts undertaken for the Ministry of Health, according to the terms of which the society's loan was secured by the payments falling due each week from the Government. Shortly after this decision, the minister of health announced that no more contracts of this kind, known as the "basic sum contract," would be approved, and as the new form of contract discontinued the weekly payments, the Cooperative Wholesale Society withdrew its support entirely.

The National Guild had before this attempted to raise a loan of £150,000 ($729,975, par), to be subscribed by its adherents and used in building up the necessary plant, and otherwise establishing the work on a firm footing. Returns had been disappointing, and its funds were inadequate for the work it had undertaken and was continuing to undertake—for it seemed to have little trouble in securing work to do. On the withdrawal of the Wholesale Cooperative Society's support, the National Federation of Building Trade Operatives came forward with the offer of a loan of £40,000 ($194,660, par), to be raised by a levy on each of its members of a half penny weekly. Unfortunately, the building workers were themselves having very rough sailing just at this juncture; their wages were being reduced, and unemployment was widespread among them. It soon became evident that they could not raise the amount offered, and by autumn their organization notified the National Building Guild that the sum

[1] The Guild Socialist, London, June, 1922, p. 9.

they had by that time turned over, £12,000 ($58,398, par), was all they could supply, and that the guild must not look to them for further assistance. This forced the guild to raise a loan from a Manchester bank on the usual commercial terms, and with the usual liability to legal proceedings if the bank became convinced its interests demanded such a move.

Meanwhile, the national officers, who were finally responsible for the execution of all contracts and the payment of all liabilities, were facing a combination of difficulties. At a conference held in December, 1922, the secretary of the national body, made an address, giving some of the causes of their embarrassments. The excellence of the guild's work, both in quality and output, on the housing work for the Government, he said, had given it at first a great advantage which during the current year it had lost.

> Maximum sum contracts had replaced the more favorable basic sum contracts, and failure to work to schedule became a much more serious affair. Moreover, the fear of unemployment had enabled the private employer to drive his employees to an extent which had not been practicable before; the guild monopoly in respect of output had disappeared. Only the uniformly high standard of quality remained as a special asset of the guild movement.
>
> Two-thirds of the local committees rose to the occasion in a marvellous way, maintaining as high a standard of discipline as any private employer; but some committees had shown slackness in time-keeping, had countenanced abuses of the principle of continuous pay and had shown a human, but unbusinesslike, tendency to keep their comrades off the unemployed market at all costs, even to the extent of overmanning their jobs. There had been great difficulty in getting regular returns and therefore in forming a clear idea of the financial position as a whole at any given time.
>
> By last August it was clear, not only that efficient guilds were being made to pay for inefficient guilds, but also that a good deal of the money which was required to pay for materials was not available for that purpose, having been spent on labor. Credit was another difficulty. Some committees had managed to carry on without help from Manchester; but others, especially those which had started under the system of maximum sum contracts, had never got on their feet financially. The task of coordinating credit for these bodies had been one of appalling difficulty.
>
> These features and especially the undue expenditure on labor had led to the present crisis. To meet the more pressing demands, they had had to overdraw their bank balances. This was followed by a run on the guild and by the necessity for taking such steps as were possible to protect the interests of the movement as a whole. Such were the circumstances which had culminated in the appointment of a receiver.[2]

It will be seen that two major causes are assigned here: The initial lack of capital, and the organization of the guilds, which involved central financial responsibility with very little central control over the action of the local committees except in the one function of making contracts. The majority of the committees did not abuse the principle of local self-control, but the minority, who did, were able to involve the whole movement in difficulties, while the lack of capital was a pretty general handicap.

It is hard to learn just what is the legal situation of the National Building Guild at the present time. An arrangement was planned, and approved by the court, by which a Scotch firm of contractors who were interested in the guild movement, were to pay over to the organization £50,000 ($243,325, par), assuming in return control of its operation for some three years, and receiving 6 per cent of the net profits as their share. For some reason this arrangement fell through, and there seems a curious delay about winding up the business in the usual manner. In April it was stated that no

[2] The Guild Socialist, London, January, 1923, p. 8.

steps had yet been taken toward this end, and that affairs at guild headquarters were still in the hands of a receiver.

While the National Building Guild was thus sinking under its financial load, a number of the constituent organizations were actively striving to disengage themselves from the centralized administration which, they felt, involved them in misfortunes which were none of their making, and handicapped the whole movement by tying it up with the mistakes and errors of a small proportion of the associated bodies. The Bournemouth Guild had never affiliated with the national body, so it pursued its way unharmed. The Scottish and London guilds early took steps to separate from the central organization, but the delay in settling the legal affairs of the latter has hindered their withdrawal. By March the formation was announced of a new "London Guild of Builders," ready to take over the work at once. By April the Eastern Counties Guild of Builders announced the establishment of their provisional committee, and declared that they were going ahead, determined on success. A new guild in Manchester was announced, and others were forming.

Meanwhile, an increasing number of districts in addition to London and Scotland are taking steps to reconstitute themselves as distinct local bodies, either taking over the assets and liabilities of the national in their areas, or making a totally new start. The National Guild Building Society has also resumed operations, and is fixing up further contracts.[3]

In their determination to reestablish themselves, the separate guilds were encouraged by one of the developments of 1922—the formation of guild building, or housing societies, which were planned to bring together those wishing guild houses in a definite organization through which they could supply the market the guilds needed. Tentative beginnings in this direction were made early in the year, local societies being formed in a number of districts, and by November it was announced that a national building society had been launched, with offices at London and Manchester. Details as to the local societies are not available, but apparently they are in the nature of cooperative building societies, which by preference carry on the actual work of construction through the building guilds, but which may, if necessary, undertake it themselves. Most of the societies, it is said, are supported by regular payments from those desiring houses; others feature the practice of building for those who can pay down one-third of the cost, the remainder to be paid off progressively, while others are considering plans by which trades-unions may advance money for the construction of houses for their members. By April of the current year, the national organization of these societies had been so definitely planned that it was being suggested, as the natural successor of the National Building Guild, as the connecting link between the various building guilds. It had also signed contracts for a large amount of work in widely scattered areas.

Guilds in Other Industries.

WHILE the building guilds attracted more attention, and undertook more extensive work than those in other industries, building is by no means the only line in which guilds have been launched.

[3] The Guild Socialist, London, April, 1923, p. 10.

Furnishing guilds, or guilds for providing furniture of all kinds, were closely connected with the building guilds, and were among the first to be formed outside of the building trades. Two were established, one in London and one in Manchester. Their work proved as excellent in its line as that of the building guilds, but like the latter, they were hampered by insufficient capital to provide the requisite plant. The Manchester guild especially suffered in this way, and when the National Building Guild was forced into a receivership, thus cutting off the help it had given to the furnishing guild, the latter, too, found it necessary to wind up its affairs. The London body has had better fortune, and at last reports was continuing its work energetically.

Welwyn Garden City is the location of the New Town Agricultural Guild, which is of interest as being a conspicuously successful organization in an industry which does not at first sight seem well adapted to guilds. This guild is closely connected with the New Town Trust of Welwyn Garden City, from which it has borrowed the capital for its work at a fixed rate of interest. All profits above this interest are to be used for stabilizing and extending the guild's work, and for the benefit of the town. The guild is managed by a committee of nine, five of whom are elected by the guildsmen, comprising all workers who are over 18, are members of a trade-union, and who take out a shilling share. One is nominated by the trade-union, one, who is to represent especially the consumers, by the parish council, and two by the board of the New Town Trust. These last are intended to make the connection between Welwyn's agriculture and its other industries. The guild began with 700 acres, but intended to take over as rapidly as possible the entire agricultural belt surrounding the city. The English magazine, Garden Cities and Town Planning, for May, 1923, mentions that it is now farming over 800 acres of this belt. The guild is making a feature of agricultural education, taking pupils in all lines of work, has been conspicuously successful in taking prizes at agricultural shows, and has introduced an elaborate system of cost accounting, which will tend to show, eventually, how far profit making figures in the price of agricultural products. The latest report concerning its activities seems to show that it is prospering.

A report of the progress of the New Town Agricultural Guild shows that by Michaelmas arrangements will have been completed for taking over more land, the addition of which will mean that the guild will be farming over 1,000 acres.

A modern poultry plant, costing £1,500 [$7,300, par], has been started.

On the question of the reduction of wages that has taken place for agricultural laborers in the district, the guild committee has decided to maintain the basic wage at 36s. [$8.76, par] per week.[4]

In March, 1923, the formation of the Staffordshire Agricultural Guild was announced, but details concerning it are not at hand.

The Guild Socialist, which was formally adopted as the official organ of the National Guild Council, contains references to a number of guilds, concerning which it says reports have not been received in sufficient detail to justify conclusions as to whether they really embody guild principles and whether they are likely to be permanent or merely ephemeral. Among these are a guild of musical industries, a dockers' guild at Aberdeen, a dairy guild, location not mentioned, and a guild of makers of cricket balls. A guild of clerks, first men-

[4] The Guild Socialist, London, March, 1923, p. 5.

tioned in January, 1922, at which time it had branches in Glasgow and Manchester, seems to have gained a fair start, and is mentioned several times during the year as getting on satisfactorily. A national clothing guild was established, based on local guilds which had been started in London and Glasgow during 1921, and closely allied with the garment makers' unions. One hopeful feature of this body is that the two locals were formed during the depression of 1921 and the fact that they endured the hard times and find themselves at the beginning of 1923 better equipped than ever before seems to promise well for their future. A similar guild was formed in Leeds during 1922, and is allied with the national organization and other branches are contemplated.

Probably the most interesting development of the past year was the guild movement among the engineering trades. It will be remembered that in the first part of 1922 the engineering employers made certain demands upon their employees involving the relinquishment of various privileges the unions had gained during past years, especially during the war period, and that the refusal of the men to agree to these terms was followed by a lockout which resulted in a complete victory for the employers. This apparently stimulated the desire of the men for a different form of industrial organization, and guilds were gradually formed at Coventry, at London, and at Birmingham. The engineering industry was recognized as a particularly unfavorable one for guilds to enter, inasmuch as the plant and machinery required involve a heavy investment before work can even begin. The different guilds are meeting this difficulty in different ways. The guild at Birmingham is trying to raise capital by issuing £5 noninterest-bearing membership bonds, to which the various engineering trade-unions supporting the guild are asked to subscribe in the proportion of one bond to each hundred members, and they also propose to sell interest-bearing loan bonds to individuals. Apparently, they rely on making a modest beginning and keeping expenses down. They state that they propose to establish small local workshops, and to bid for work from both municipalities and private firms, "but realizing the necessity of having a stock job to keep us going, we have under consideration several commodities, small, simple, and inexpensive, for which a ready market should be found, and in the production of which we are confident we can defy any competitors." [5]

The London guild is seeking contracts for the installation of engineering work for municipalities and similar bodies. Its leaders claim that there is a large field for this kind of work, and that it does not require the expensive plant which is required in some other forms of engineering. The guild has already secured a contract from a borough council for an engineering installation costing £2,000 ($9,733, par), and in October, 1922, the City and Westminster Guardians accepted a bid of a guild for maintenance work for 12 months. To raise an initial sum for beginning work the guild launched a campaign for a loan of £10,000 ($48,665, par), to be raised by the sale through trade-union branches of certificates of the value of 5s. ($1.22, par) and upwards. Returns were very satisfactory, in spite of the situation created by the industrial depression and the numerous reductions of

[5] The Guild Socialist, London, April, 1923, p. 9.

wages through the year. In addition to the money received, various engineering works were placed at their disposal. Moreover, an appeal to technical workers for help proved highly successful.

> Following the issue of the prospectus, with its call for assistance, many associate members of the institutes of civil, mechanical, and electrical engineers volunteered their services, and the guild is now well equipped with technical assistance.[6]

Summing up the situation, then, it appears that the National Building Guild has suffered a severe and probably a fatal reverse, due partly to insufficient capital to begin with, partly to its system of centralized financial responsibility without centralized control, and partly to inefficiency and bad judgment, not to say lack of conscience, on the part of some of the local bodies. An element of sheer hard luck came into play, too. Thus, at a time when cash was urgently needed and was due on work completed, the Government officials whose certificate as to work done was requisite before payments could be secured, went off for their annual vacations and payments to the guild were held up. Such incidents, however, form part of the ordinary risk of business and are not overserious to concerns having a sufficient working capital. The reverses of the national body, however, do not necessarily mean the destruction of the local guilds. A number of these are reorganizing, and it seems possible that the net result may be a survival of the fittest, under which the efficient and well-managed guilds will flourish, while the inefficient, having no supporting body to fall back upon, will go out of existence.

Outside of the building industry the guild movement shows considerable activity. A National Guild Council has been formed to foster the movement in all industries, trade-unions are taking a keen interest in it, which in a number of cases has led to financial support, and guilds in various industries have been formed and are functioning. A hopeful feature is that most of these are beginning modestly, undertaking only such work as they see their way clear to finance, and expecting to make haste slowly. The future is, of course, uncertain, but the advocates of guild principles, while regretting the breakdown of the National Building Guild, do not seem discouraged by it and are going ahead enthusiastically.

Housing Measures in Belgrade.

THE United States consul in Belgrade, writing under date of May 3, 1923, gives some account of housing conditions in that city, which, like practically all other cities, has suffered from a housing shortage. In this case, the shortage was felt the more keenly because upon the formation of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes with Belgrade as its capital, the city became a much more important place, and the increase in the governmental personnel combined with an influx of rural population to bring about an acute need for more houses. By 1920 a period of intensive building set in, new construction for Government purposes, for banks, and for residential use was undertaken, and the movement grew until in 1922 a money

[6] The Guild Socialist, London, January, 1923, p. 5.

stringency, ascribed to the large credits given for building purposes, put a check upon new projects. In 1920 the permits issued for new houses numbered 83, the next year 513 permits for new buildings were issued, and in 1922 the number was 749. During the current year, up to the time of the consular report, 110 new buildings had been completed. In addition to new projects, much has been done in the way of rebuilding or repairing old structures, and in a number of cases one or more stories have been added to old houses.

New buildings have formed an attractive investment for persons having liquid capital, partly because, while the exchange value of the dinar has been diminishing, property values and rental returns have been rising, and partly because the taxes on unused land sites made them an expensive form in which to tie up money. Building operations have been financed by the city banks, but the money stringency is so great that interest of from 30 to 35 per cent is said not be unusual. Naturally this has checked speculative building, and has also interfered with building undertaken on more solid grounds of need. However, the State Mortgage Bank has secured a loan from Switzerland, with which it expects to advance credits for the completion of new buildings actually under way, but does not at present intend to finance any new ventures.

In spite of the building boom of the last two or three years, the city is overcrowded, and suitable housing is at a premium. Rents are high, an unfurnished apartment of four small rooms bringing $40 a month, while the better ones bring from $50 to $60. Translated into the currency of the country at the rate of exchange prevailing when the report was written, this means that rents range from 3,720 to 5,580 dinars. The wages of a skilled mechanic at present range from 70 to 100 dinars a day, so that under the most favorable circumstances he could not earn in 30 days of continuous work enough to pay one month's rent for even the cheapest apartment.

Many of the new buildings are apartment houses containing from 6 to 12 or more apartments, usually of from 4 to 6 rooms. Elevators are practically unknown, and furnace heating is rare. The houses are built of brick and reinforced concrete, finished off with a coating of cement. All the windows are double as a protection against the strong cold winds of Belgrade, and in houses which do not have central heating a tile stove is built in each room as a part of the house.

To help the city meet its housing difficulties the Government has resorted to two means—a loan and tax remission on new houses. The financial law for 1922–23 authorizes the Government to lend the city of Belgrade 150,000,000 dinars, to be used for "the immediate work of reparation and extension of the water system, drainage, tramways and lighting, pavement, and erection of small houses." The provisions for tax exemption are especially designed to encourage high buildings:

New buildings erected within the construction region of the city of Belgrade since November 1, 1916, and in accordance with permission obtained from the constructional bureau of the municipality, shall be exempt from the payment of all State taxes and municipality charges, with the exception of the taxes for invalids, beginning with the date of completion for the following periods:

a. Single story and two story houses, for a period of 20 years.
b. Three story and upwards, for a period of 30 years.

If new stories are erected on old houses in accordance with permits obtained from the constructional bureau of the municipality, then the returns of such newly erected stories shall be exempt from the payment of State taxes and municipality charges for periods computed in accordance with the above-mentioned provisions in the same way as if they were erected on the ground.

The same tendency appears in another section of the law, which provides that in a specified portion of the city no house may be erected having fewer than four stories, while in another section at least two are required.

Spanish Housing Law and Provisional Regulations for the Law.[1]

IN JULY, 1922, provisional regulations were issued for the application of the Spanish law on working-class houses which was promulgated December 10, 1921, and superseded the law of June 12, 1911. The outstanding features of the law are State aid, guaranty of a remunerative rental to private owners of houses that are rented to workers, and the provisions requiring the municipalities to take steps to meet the local housing needs.

Working-class houses, for the purposes of the act, must comply with certain specified technical, sanitary, and economic conditions and be officially recognized as working-class or low-priced houses (*casas baratas*). They may be constructed by the State, the municipalities, other official organizations, private persons, and societies, including consumers' cooperative societies, provided they are not run for profit, and associations for the occupational rehabilitation of the victims of accidents. In order to be eligible to enjoy the benefits of the law, building societies must have their by-laws approved by the Institute of Social Reform.

According to the regulations the right to live in a "casa barata," either as renter or owner, is limited to Spaniards and naturalized foreigners, who are heads of families and whose total annual income does not exceed the limit fixed for the locality by the housing boards or Institute of Social Reform. The maximum is fixed at 6,000 pesetas ($1,158, par), except for proprietors, in which case it is 4,000 pesetas ($772, par). At least 75 per cent of the total income must be from salary, wages, or pension.

Incentives Offered by the State.

THE most important incentives offered by the State to promote the building of working-class dwellings are tax exemption, loans, guaranty of a remunerative rental, subsidies, and the use of Government-owned land.

Tax exemption.—There are numerous provisions granting tax exemption, the most important one giving exemption from every tax or assessment imposed by the State, the Provinces, and the municipalities, for a period of 20 years from the date of qualifying for such exemption. Houses built with the aid of loans authorized by the law will be exempt from all taxation until all obligations are paid,

[1] Boletin del Instituto de Reformas Sociales, Madrid, January, 1922, pp. 17-37; Spain, Gaceta de Madrid, July 28, 1922, pp. 363-400

but not to exceed 30 years, and those for which a fair rental is guaranteed will enjoy exemption so long as they are entitled to the guaranty.

Loans.—The Minister of Labor is authorized to grant loans with 30 years' first-mortgage security and 2 to 3 per cent interest, up to an aggregate of 100,000,000 pesetas ($19,300,000, par) for the construction of working-class houses. The grant of such a loan is limited to those houses which are legally designated "casas baratas" and which are to become the property of the tenant within the 30-year period. The loans may be made to individuals or to legally constituted corporations or societies (cooperative, benefit, or commercial), but preferably 25 per cent of the total amount shall be granted to cooperative building societies. The loans shall not exceed 55 per cent of the value of the estate or 70 per cent of the value of the finished buildings, and advances may be made as the building progresses.

Guaranty of a remunerative rental.—Another way of encouraging the building of houses to be rented to workers is the guaranty of a remunerative rental by the State to those who undertake the construction of such houses, provided they satisfy the requirements of the law. The State undertakes to pay the difference between the net income from the property, as estimated by the Ministry of Labor and the Institute of Social Reform when the designation "casa barata" is granted, and the rent normally received for such property in the locality.

The regulations provide that in considering applications for the guaranty the following points shall be considered: The intensity of the housing needs of the locality in question, the amount of rent asked for each dwelling, the lowest rates of interest requested, the total cost of the house in relation to the items just mentioned, and the number of persons that can occupy the house. During the 10 years for which the guaranty is granted the owner must comply with the provisions of the law in every respect. If at the expiration of that period conditions still justify the granting of a guaranty, it may be continued in five-year periods as needed. The State may not spend more than 3,000,000 pesetas ($579,000, par) annually for this purpose.

Subsidies.—The State is authorized to appropriate 1,000,000 pesetas ($193,000, par) annually for promoting the building of homes for the working classes. Fifty per cent of this amount will be used under specified conditions to pay interest on the mortgage loans obtained by the building societies, and the bearer bonds issued by these societies. The State will pay interest on these securities up to 3 per cent but anything beyond that must be met by the societies themselves. The remainder of this 50 per cent plus the other 50 per cent will be used for direct subsidies to private persons and building societies in proportion to the amount of their investment, but not to exceed 25 per cent of the cost of the site and the building. Any surplus remaining from the 3,000,000 pesetas already mentioned is to be applied to this use. In capitals where the housing shortage is most acute, the subsidy may be increased to 50 per cent if construction is begun and completed within a year after the publication of the law.

Use of Government-owned land.—The municipalities, the Provinces, and the State are authorized to lease, rent, sell, or give away land owned by them which is a suitable site for working-class houses.

Construction work covered by this law may enjoy the benefit of only one of the three forms of State aid (loans, rent guaranty, and subsidies), except in the case of cooperative building societies engaged in constructing houses to be owned by their members. These may choose two forms of aid. The owners of factories or industrial or agricultural undertakings who construct working-class dwellings to be rented to their workers, are entitled to the privileges granted by this law to cooperative societies, even if the houses are not to become the property of the tenant, but in this case only one of the forms of aid may be enjoyed and the rent must be approved by the Ministry of Labor after consultation with the Institute of Social Reform.

Responsibility of Municipalities for Meeting Local Housing Needs.

IN LOCALITIES where there is a shortage of working-class houses, the municipal governments must, within one year after the publication of the regulations, submit a scheme for a building program to the Ministry of Labor. The period for carrying out this scheme must not exceed 20 years. The municipalities may purchase or expropriate any land or other property needed for building purposes. In order to meet the expenses of the housing scheme they are required to use the income from certain specified sources and in addition are authorized to negotiate loans for the purpose. A municipality may require any one to whom it sells a house to take out life insurance in order to insure the payment of the full amount of the debt, especially in case the buyer dies before completing the payments on his house.

Administration of the Law.

THE administration of this law is under the Ministry of Labor, the immediate responsibility, however, being with the Institute of Social Reform and the local housing boards (*juntas de casas baratas*). For this purpose and for the study of the housing problem in general a special division to be known as the special commission on working-class houses (*comisión especial de casas baratas*) is to be established in the Institute of Social Reform. A local housing board may be constituted by the Minister of Labor on his own initiative or on the petition of official or private corporations, employers' or workers' organizations, or a group of citizens of the said locality. It will be created by royal order, and will consist of the mayor (*alcalde*), as presiding officer, and nine members, who will serve for four-year terms and may be reelected.

It is the duty of the housing boards and local sanitary authorities to inspect dwellings and report to the municipal government or Ministry of Labor any in which bad sanitary conditions exist. If the owner refuses or neglects to make the necessary repairs or improvements, or to tear down the houses if so ordered, the municipality may proceed to do so at the expense of the owner. When the municipal authorities of provincial capitals or of towns of more than 12,000

population neglect the sanitation of groups of houses, the Minister of Labor may appoint a deputy to compel the necessary improvements.

Miscellaneous Provisions.

AMONG the general provisions in the final chapter of the law are the following: Employers and workers engaged on housing schemes assisted by loans under this law must conclude collective agreements, and submit to arbitration all disputes that may result from such agreements. When bids are being received for construction or repair work carried on by the municipalities under this law, preference is to be given to workmen's organizations, especially if they are cooperative societies. Building-craft unions may unite in submitting bids for such work. They are exempt from the payment of a deposit if the total amount of the contract does not exceed 30,000 pesetas ($5,790, par); if it exceeds that sum they are required to pay only 50 per cent of the usual deposit.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND HYGIENE.

Value of Safety Campaigns to Industrial Workers.

AN ADDRESS delivered by Mr. C. W. Price in connection with the opening of "safety week" in Louisville, Ky., points out the value of community safety campaigns from an industrial standpoint as well as from that of the general safety of the public, with which such campaigns are usually associated.

The value of the accident-prevention work carried on in industrial plants is shown by the record of St. Louis. One hundred and ten workmen were killed in that city in 1917 in industrial accidents, while in 1922 but 15 were fatally injured, although there was a material increase in the actual number of workmen. This result was effected through intensive educational work along safety lines in individual plants and also, it is stated, through a community safety campaign, the effects of such a campaign being reflected in the attitude of the workmen toward safe practices within the plant.

Community safety, therefore, helps not only the safety work within the factory but is of value in safeguarding workmen from death and serious accident when not at work. An example of the comparative hazards is shown by the record of the plant of the Ford Motor Co. in Detroit, which in 1920 had but 1 fatal plant accident among the 50,000 workers employed, while 10 workmen lost their lives outside of the factory.

Employers are also increasingly interested in traffic safety because of the number of commercial vehicles they have constantly on the streets and because of the increasing cost of public liability insurance.

The records of cities like St. Louis, Milwaukee, and Washington, which have conducted intensive safety campaigns, are cited as showing the possibility of accident reduction through education. The three most important factors are systematic daily safety instruction in the public schools, a continuous poster campaign on the streets, and a well-arranged campaign in the daily press. It is stated that one-half of all that can be done in any community to reach the adult population will be effected through the safety education of school children who take the safety message home to their parents.

Visualizing safety on the street so that the driver or pedestrian will be constantly reminded of it has been for the first time successfully worked out in Washington, where slogans with a short and forceful message have been displayed at street intersections, at filling stations, on street cars, busses, and taxicabs, in schoolhouses and public buildings, and at entrances to factories. These slogans have been changed each month and the superintendent of police reports that in two months the total number of accidental deaths has been reduced 32 per cent, traffic deaths 43 per cent, and deaths of children 65 per cent.

Metalliferous Mine Accidents in Colorado, 1922.

THE following figures on fatal and serious accidents in the metal mines, quarries, mills, and smelters of Colorado are taken from the annual report of the Bureau of Mines of that State for the year 1922.

NUMBER OF FATAL AND SERIOUS ACCIDENTS AND RATE PER 10,000 DAYS OF EMPLOYMENT, IN COLORADO METALLIFEROUS MINES, 1921 AND 1922.

	Days of employment.		Fatalities.				Serious injuries (time loss over 14 days).			
			1921		1922		1921		1922	
	1921	1922	Number.	Rate per 10,000 days.	Number.	Rate per 10,000 days.	Number.	Rate per 10,000 days.	Number.	Rate per 10,000 days.
Underground	859,185	774,065	17	0.1978	15	0.1937	138	1.5010	171	2.2090
Surface	285,030	263,354	1	.0350	1	.0379	55	1.9290	56	2.1260
Mills	207,723	397,981	.....	.....	1	.0251	17	.8183	17	.4271
Smelters	395,109	346,700	1	.0253	1	.0288	26	.6580	24	.6922
Quarries	151,554	150,301	1	.0659	2	.0665	21	1.3850	21	1.3970
Placer mines (dredges)	12,515	20,246	.....	.....	3	1.4810	2	1.5980	3	1.4810
Oil shale	11,259	12,777	7	6.2170	.....	.....	8	7.1050	4	3.1300

Mine Accidents in Idaho, 1922.

THE annual report of the inspector of mines of Idaho for the year 1922 contains a classification of mining accidents taken from the records of the Idaho Industrial Accident Board. The following table shows the number and severity of mining accidents by general cause groups:

ACCIDENTS OCCURRING IN AND ABOUT MINES, BY SEVERITY, IDAHO, 1922.

Class of accident.	Number of accidents resulting in—			
	Death.	Permanent partial disability (over 2 weeks).	Slight injury.	
			Over 2 weeks.	1 to 2 weeks.
Underground	8	16	327	490
Shaft	3	1	6	5
Surface	1	1	56	74
Open pit	1	.....	.....	.....
Milling	1	2	19	18
Smelter	.....	2	22	3
Auxiliary works	.....	1	3	2
Total	14	23	433	592

Effect of Shop Conditions on Efficiency in Cotton Weaving, Great Britain.

THE British Ministry of Labor Gazette for May, 1923, contains a summary of the results of an investigation conducted by the Industrial Fatigue Board into the subject of variations in efficiency in cotton weaving. The investigation covered nine weaving sheds, seven of which were artificially humidified, while two were "dry," no attempt being made to supply moisture artificially. Records of output were taken at hourly intervals, over a period of a year. More than a million readings were taken in all. Among the principal tendencies observed were the following:

The efficiency [1] on Saturday morning was very low in some sheds, largely owing to the sweeping and cleaning of looms which takes place on that morning.

The efficiency on Monday morning is relatively low, under normal conditions, owing to the effect of the week-end break both upon the operatives and upon the material. Tuesday is generally the most efficient day.

In sheds working on the two-break system, the efficiency during the prebreakfast spell is consistently low, being about 2 per cent less than that of the second and third spells.

The rate of output has been found to diminish during a period of "short time," apparently owing to the modified attitude of the operatives toward their work.

In the sheds in which artificial humidity was supplied, output tended to vary directly as the product of the numerical values of the humidity and the temperature taken together. It was found that the atmospheric conditions which were best for the warp were not best for the weaver. The degree of humidity and heat needed for the warp is determined partly by the size with which it is dressed, and it is suggested that the size might perhaps be altered so as to change this need, or that it might be possible to adopt some system of local humidification of the looms which would not affect the air around the weaver. While experiments along these lines are being carried on, it is suggested that during the hot season conditions might be bettered by increasing the movement of the air in the vicinity of the weavers. "At present, the best conditions for efficiency in humid weaving sheds of the type investigated seem to be obtained with a dry-bulb temperature of 70–75° F. and a relative humidity of 80–85 per cent."

The character of the light used was found to have an effect on efficiency, output increasing as the proportion of work done under artificial light was reduced. In some cases the difference in efficiency due to this cause amounted to from 4 to 6 per cent. This has a bearing upon the custom prevalent in many English mills, of beginning work before breakfast.

The two-break day involves the use of artificial light for more hours than the one-break day. In one shed where the two-break system was worked the efficiency of the prebreakfast spell was 8.7 per cent less than that of the second spell in winter, whereas in summer the difference was only 1.7 per cent.

[1] The output expressed as a percentage of that which is theoretically possible when the looms are running continuously.

Prevention of Phthisis in the Printing Industry in England.

THE American Journal of Public Health, May, 1923 (p. 426), carries a note regarding the control of printers' phthisis in the printing department of the Bank of England as a result of the installation of a vacuum-cleaning system. The apparatus was installed on the assumption that the elimination of dust in the plant would prevent the spread of tuberculosis among the workers. The vacuum-cleaning system in use in the bank has a central exhaust engine with pipes carried to every floor and with dust containers in the basement. It has been used continuously and systematically for two years over all walls, floors, and furniture. The sickness rates have been compared over the two-year period with those of a new printing plant near London which did not have such a cleaning system. No new cases of the disease developed in the printing department of the bank during the two years, although five new cases, one of which was fatal, appeared in the other plant. Prior to the installation of the cleaning plant in the bank cases of phthisis had occurred as frequently as in other printing plants. The conclusion is that "phthisis may be prevented in certain printing shops if preventive measures are taken. If it can be prevented among printers it surely can be reduced elsewhere. The constant systematic elimination of dust should lead to the curtailment not only of consumption but of many minor illnesses."

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.

Disease as a Compensable Injury.

By LINDLEY D. CLARK.

THE legislative enactments known as compensation laws have received varying constructions in the courts of different States as regards the inclusion of diseases. Some State courts have regarded them as a mere substitute for the old doctrine of employers' liability for accidental injury, the principal change being the elimination of the question of negligence. Indeed many of the laws use the term "accidental" in describing the nature of the injury for which compensation is available. On the other hand, some legislatures have, either by direct provision or by the use of more inclusive terms, made it possible to consider disease incurred by reason of the employment as entitling to the benefits of the act. However, even when the broader language was used, apparently opening the door for a more liberal construction, some of the local courts have been unwilling to accept the inclusion, and have held the scope of the law to the narrower limits of accidents.

A number of cases illustrative of the various points of view were noted in an article in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for July, 1917 (pp. 81–96). At the end of 1922 compensation for disease was provided for in the laws of 11 States,[1] and in the statute covering Federal employees. In most of these the law is general in its application to occupational diseases, but in some only a specified list of diseases is covered. The Federal statute was applied to diseases by the construction placed by the Federal Employees' Compensation Commission upon the term "personal injury"—a ruling that has been the subject of consideration by the Comptroller General, whose opinion was against such inclusion, and subsequently by the Department of Justice, whose opinion sustains it. (See MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for April, 1923, pp. 131–133, and June, 1923, pp. 213–220.)

Illinois Statute Unconstitutional.

THIS action of the Comptroller General and its reversal leaves the Federal law among those providing for the compensation of disease. The same can not be said of the situation in Illinois. There the legislature of 1921 designated certain diseases as compensable the same as for disablement by accident (Laws 1921, p. 334), by an attempted amendment of the occupational disease act of 1911. A claim under this amendment was contested on the ground that the provisions of the act of 1911 had not been properly amended under

[1] California, Connecticut, Hawaii, Illinois, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Porto Rico, and Wisconsin.

the forms prescribed by the constitution of the State for the enactment of amendatory laws. The constitution directs the insertion at length in the act in its new form of the section as amended; while in the instant case the amended section was referred to by its title only. For this purely technical reason the amendment was declared void, so that in the absence of further legislative action occupational diseases are not within the scope of the compensation law. The case in which this was decided (Kelley *v.* St. Louis Smelting & Refining Co. (1923), 138 N. E. 618) discusses at some length the apparent intention of the legislature and the practical results of such intended enactment if the constitutional provisions had been complied with. However, the rule of invalidity was based strictly on the defect in procedure.

Disease as Accident.

THIS decision eliminates Illinois from the list of States having such laws at the end of 1922, in the absence of remedial action by the legislature.[a] It is of interest to note in this connection that the supreme court of the State affirmed an award made in a case of acute arsenical poisoning resulting from the inhalation of fumes from a smelter furnace. (Matthiessen & Hegeler Zinc Co. *v.* Industrial Board (1918), 120 N. E. 249.) This decision was based purely on the theory of accident, the establishment having claimed that the injury was the first of its kind in an experience of 40 years, and the supreme court saying that there was no evidence tending in any degree to prove the poisoning to be a disease incident to the occupation.

The accidental nature of an injury falling by customary definition within the class of occupational diseases was the turning point in an Ohio case in which death resulted from the inhalation of lead fumes from paint. However, the circumstances were such as to lead to a different classification by the supreme court of the State. The workman was assisting a painter on a cold day, and was told by him to heat a pot of paint that was too cold to flow properly. While doing so in a small, poorly ventilated room, he inhaled enough of the fumes to cause death. Restricting the term "occupational disease" to "a disease that is not only incident to an occupation but also the natural, usual, and ordinary result thereof," this case was distinguished as "one occasioned by accident or misadventure," for which compensation should be allowed (Industrial Commission *v.* Roth (1918), 120 N. E. 172). This decision was a reversal of the action of the industrial commission, which had refused compensation on the strength of a previous decision in the case of Industrial Commission *v.* Brown (1915), 110 N. E. 744, where a workman in a factory incurred lead poisoning in the regular course of his employment. This was classed as occupational; while of the Roth case it was said that "this accident might have happened to any person, regardless of his occupation, who had occasion to enter this building at the time this folly was being perpetrated." Very similar was the conclusion of the Supreme Court of California in a case in which a

[a] A new amendment covering the subject was passed by both houses at the recent session.

sign writer who used wood alcohol as a solvent was employed to an unusual extent during the rush (holiday) season, the far greater quantity of wood alcohol used so affecting his eyes that he was unable to use them for any work. Giving to the law "the broader interpretation in harmony with the spirit of liberality in which it was conceived," the phrase "injuries sustained by accident" was held to include the case in hand, where there was "an unlooked-for event which is not expected or designed." (Fidelity & Casualty Co. *v.* Industrial Accident Commission (1918), 171 Pac. 429.) It may be noted that in both the foregoing cases it was the result alone that was accidental, and that the causal incidents (the heating of the paint and the use of the wood alcohol) were intentional and voluntary.

Emphasis on the accidental nature of injuries in their causal aspect was responsible for the rejection of a claim where the death of a city fireman from pneumonia followed his wetting while engaged in extinguishing a fire. The court ruled that it was no unusual event in such an employment for the employee to become wet, and even if it should be assumed that a germ latent in the system was aroused by the prolonged exposure and the inclemency of the weather, the fact remains that such exposure was an incident of the employment and not an unusual or unexpected event (Landers *v.* City of Muskegon (1916), 163 N. W. 43).

Connecticut Statute.

THE law of Connecticut was amended in 1919 with the evident purpose of avoiding such constructions as the above, and specifically the construction placed by the State supreme court of errors on the original law in Linnane *v.* Aetna Brewing Co. (1916), 91 Conn. 158, 99 Atl. 507. In that case death from pneumonia followed exposure to a storm and the wetting of the workman's garments, which could not be changed for several hours, which was held not to be an accidental bodily injury. The amendment of 1919 provided that it should be no bar to a claim that an injury arising out of and in the course of the employment "can not be traced to a definite occurrence which can be located in point of time and place." In applying the amended law to a claim in which death from pneumonia followed exhausting labor, overheating, and chill, the court regarded the amendment as sustaining an award on the ground that the weakened resistance to infection of the respiratory tract was causally connected with the exhaustion resulting from the arduous nature of the work done. (Dupre *v.* Atlantic Refining Co. (1923), 120 Atl. 288.)

Idiopathic Diseases Under Other Laws.

THIS decision has been commented on in the insurance press as "revolutionary" in the elimination of the necessity for directly tracing the cause of the injury. The comment seems hardly warranted, however, since similar awards have been made in other jurisdictions. Thus the Supreme Court of Utah affirmed an award of the State industrial commission where a workman died of pneu-

monia which apparently had its inception some two or three hours after a fall. It was admitted that the "disease would rarely manifest itself in so short a time after an accidental injury"; but the diagnosis of immediate inception was verified by the death four days later from lobar pneumonia as found by autopsy. (Milford Copper Co. *v.* Industrial Commission (1922), 210 Pac. 993.) Very similar to the last case is one in which the Supreme Court of Illinois affirmed an award in a case of death from pneumonia which followed 11 days after a serious injury in the course of employment. (Timmermann *v.* Industrial Commission (1922), 137 N. E. 440.) In this case pneumonia symptoms were noted on the second day after the accident, and the condition of the patient's vitality and the likelihood of the circumstances to favor the development of pneumonia complications were said to justify the finding of the commission in the claimant's favor.

It is clear that the above decisions are not based on the question of "occupational disease," as that term is usually understood. The same must be said of cases of typhoid fever, which are the subject of contradictory decisions. Thus the Supreme Court of Ohio (Industrial Commission *v.* Cross (1922), 136 N. E. 283) ruled that death from typhoid fever incurred from the drinking of the only available water was not an injury within the meaning of the compensation law of that State. On the other hand, a hotel employee in Michigan was allowed compensation for illness from typhoid fever which evidently resulted from the use of the water supplied by her employer. (Frankamp *v.* Fordney Hotel (1923), 193 N. W. 204.) Admitting that under the law the injury must be accidental, and that no recovery could be had for occupational diseases, accidental consequences of the drinking of impure water were held to bring the case within the scope of the act. The Appellate Court of Indiana takes a position in line with the Michigan decision above noted, in affirming an award of compensation where an employee was ill from typhoid fever as a result of drinking water supplied by his employer. It was here said that an injury need not be produced by violence to be accidental, and that a disease contracted while in the performance of an act necessary to his comfort and welfare was an injury within the line of his employment so that it was compensable. (Wasmuth & Endicott Co. *v.* Karst (1922), 133 N. E. 609.)

The Supreme Court of Minnesota places itself emphatically on record in opposition to such conclusions as those embodied in the last decision. An appeal taken in the case of an award for typhoid infection resulted in a reversal. It was said that the law of the State explicitly forbids awards in such cases, requiring the injury to happen "suddenly and violently," affecting the physical structure of the body. (State *v.* City Court of Rice County (1917), 164 N. W. 810.)

Anthrax.

ANTHRAX contracted while leading a diseased horse to be killed, as a result of inhaling the bacteria, was held by the Supreme Court of New York, Appellate Division, not to warrant an award, there being no evidence of any wound or abrasion connecting the incident with the fatal results—two of the five judges dissenting.

(Richardson *v.* Greenburg (1919), 176 N. Y. Supp. 651.) The law was said to be limited, so far as diseases were concerned, "to such disease or infection as may naturally and unavoidably" result from "accidental injuries." There being no previous accidental injury in the instant case, compensation could be not allowed.

A long-drawn-out case before the New York courts turned largely on the matter of evidence and presumption. A workman in a tannery was cut on the neck while being shaved at a barber shop and later, with the open sore, went to work. A pimple developed, followed by death from anthrax in three days. This was in 1915. The industrial commission of the State awarded compensation to the widow, which the appellate division of the department having jurisdiction affirmed. On appeal to the court of appeals the award and affirmation were reversed, the court holding that there was no authority for taking judicial notice of the possibility of the hides handled containing anthrax germs, or that a person with an open wound, working about them was likely to become infected (Eldridge *v.* Endicott, Johnson & Co. (1920), 126 N. E. 254). The point was raised but not decided as to whether or not the injury could be said to have arisen out of the employment if it were shown that the infection took place through the cut received in the barber shop. The Illinois Supreme Court took a more liberal view of a similar case where a workman abrased the skin on his neck while dressing and during that day handled hides in his employer's factory. The slight wound became infected with anthrax, with fatal results. An award in this case was affirmed, the court saying that it was a reasonable conclusion from the evidence that anthrax bacilli gained entrance through the abrased place, the characteristic processes of the disease being so clearly manifest that the "sequence of events is scarcely susceptible of any explanation except the acquiring of the anthrax bacillus from the hides in plaintiff in error's tannery." The award was made as for an accidental injury. (Chicago Rawhide Manufacturing Co. *v.* Industrial Commission (1920), 136 N. E. 616.)

A similar distinction was applied by the Supreme Court of Michigan in the case of Dove *v.* Alpena Hide & Leather Co. (1917), 164 N. W. 253. Here a tannery employee inhaled dust from dry hides which he was handling where the ventilation was poor, and developed a fatal infection in the throat. This was said by the court to be a case of accidental infection by the taking up of septic germs by the respiratory organs—an unusual occurrence, but one shown by the evidence to be probable. The same court affirmed an award where an undertaker's assistant was held to have become infected while cleaning the instruments used in handling the body of a person who had died of streptococcus infection, the diseased employee having a mark as of a cut on his finger. (Bloess *v.* Dolph (1917), 167 N. W. 885.) But where there was an infection of an untraced source, which might have gained access to the system through cracks in the hands due to the nature of the employment, it was held that there was no sufficient evidence of an accident in the course of employment to sustain an award, and the action of the State board was reversed. (Jermer *v.* Imperial Furniture Co. (1918), 166 N. W. 943.)

Employers' Liability.

THE New York law was amended in 1920 so as to make compensable certain occupational diseases, of which anthrax is one, the process in which it may be incurred being described as the handling of wool, hair bristles, hide, or skins. Inasmuch as the question described in the Eldridge case did not turn on the nature of the injury, but on the evidence, it is not clear that even if this case had arisen after this amendment the award would have been affirmed; nor, apparently, would the amendment have availed in the Richardson case, since the infection in that case was not due to any process connected with the handling of the objects named. On the other hand, the enumeration of certain occupational diseases as compensable is not a bar to the consideration by the courts of other diseases not so enumerated. Thus in Trout *v.* Wickwire Spencer Steel Corp. (1922), 195 N. Y. Supp. 528, injuries sustained from chlorine gas poisoning were held to be a proper subject for a suit for damages under the common law where it was alleged that the injurious results were due to the negligence of the employer. The fact that certain diseases were named in the compensation law was said to be no bar to the suit for a disease not enumerated, over the contention of the employer to the contrary.

Somewhat the same principle as the above was applied by the Court of Appeals of Kentucky in a case of injury from the inhalation of impure air in a coal mine. The fact that the employee was working in a place 70 feet beyond a breakthrough, in violation of a statute, charged the employer with liability for negligence; and that the parties had agreed to work under the workmen's compensation act was without significance, since this act was limited to cases of "traumatic injury by accident," and such disease as is "the natural and direct result" of such injury. Breathing the impure air caused endocarditis, for which recovery was allowed on the grounds of an injury due to negligence. (Jellico Coal Co. *v.* Adkins (1923), 247 S. W. 972.)

In contrast with the foregoing is the ruling of the Indiana Appellate Court that compensation was properly payable in a case in which a workman suffering from heart disease died as a result of the excitement of the disease by inhaling smoke and fumes from blasting operations in a mine. (Utilities Coal Co. *v.* Herr (1921), 132 N. E. 262.) Though likewise involving injury from harmful inhalations, a case before the Supreme Court of Tennessee presents aspects differing from both the foregoing. Here the employee handled sacks in which soda ash had been delivered, causing a dust which irritated the air passages, resulting in a disabling disease. Claim for compensation was submitted, and an award made, from which the employer appealed. Construing the law of the State as limiting compensation to cases in which the disease "must have naturally resulted from an injury from accident," the supreme court found no basis for compensation and dismissed the suit with costs against the plaintiff. (Meade Fiber Corp. *v.* Starnes (1923), 247 S. W. 989.)

Conclusion.

THE foregoing collection of decisions illustrates a considerable variety of circumstances, involving not only what are usually classed as occupational diseases, but also diseases of general occurrence having their inception in conditions due to the employment. The diversity of decisions is such as to indicate the necessity for clarifying legislation as well as the desirability of more uniform action in the different jurisdictions. If the injury is purely an industrial one "arising out of and in the course of the employment," it is difficult to conceive any reason why it must be limited to violence or to accident, especially if the latter term is to be restricted to accidental cause only and not to accidental results of normal, intended actions. To say that an injury is no accident merely because the workman was necessarily accustomed to do a thing which in the course of events led to injurious or perhaps fatal results is, it is submitted, to lay down a harsh rule and limit the proper scope of a beneficial statute.

A Tribute to Commissioner A. J. Pillsbury.

By WILL J. FRENCH, CHAIRMAN CALIFORNIA INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENT COMMISSION.

COMMISSIONER A. J. Pillsbury has resigned from the California Industrial Accident Commission. His resignation has been accepted by Governor Richardson and becomes effective on July 1, 1923. Mr. Pillsbury and I are two of the original three appointees by Gov. Hiram W. Johnson, made as of September 1, 1911. During the intervening nearly 12 years we have participated in the growth of California's compensation system and we have watched the development of the better method of dealing with the industrial accident problem in the United States and Canada.

Mr. Pillsbury has written his name indelibly on workmen's compensation administration by reason of his fine ability and untiring energy. He never spared himself. Early and late he was to be found considering the questions that were presented each day, and now as he approaches the three score years and ten he has every right to look back and realize that his work has not been in vain. On the contrary, he has pioneered the way on the compensation side of the California law. Mr. Pillsbury firmly believed each case should be given the most careful consideration, to the end that substantial justice should be achieved between the contending parties. He could not be swayed from the single path that each conscientious compensation administrator must tread. His aim was to do the right thing and to do it continuously, and his natural sympathy for the injured man did not result in bias. He had his eyes on the ideal, but his feet were on firm ground.

My close association with my colleague for the long period of time mentioned, viewed from a political point of view, entitles me to assay his character, his work, and his worth. The report is that the proportion of human gold is up to the highest standard. A. J. Pillsbury has proved himself a constructive builder, a friend to each member of the staff, and leaves to compensation history a name known far and wide.

Recent Compensation Reports.

Connecticut.

THE report of the Board of Compensation Commissioners of Connecticut for the two-year period ending October 31, 1922, shows that there were 53,207 accidents reported during this period. This is a decrease of 17,480 over the preceding biennium. The number of voluntary agreements was 16,667, a decrease of 4,406 over the preceding period. The number of formal hearings, however, increased from 2,173 to 2,617. The report states that there was paid out $4,578,744.87 in benefits during the period, of which $2,732,520.31 was for compensation and $1,846,224.56 was for medical aid.

Idaho.

IDAHO has been added to the list of States which have adopted the recommendations of the committee on statistics of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions relative to the classification of industrial accident statistics and compensation cost. The third annual report of the Idaho Industrial Accident Board, covering the two-year period ending October 31, 1922, contains detailed accident and compensation tables showing the number, severity, nature of injury, and cost of industrial accidents, classified by industry, cause, and type of insurance. The number and severity of accidents, by industrial groups, are shown in the following table:

NUMBER AND RESULTS OF INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS (CLOSED CASES), FOR THE TWO YEARS ENDING OCTOBER 31, 1921 AND 1922, BY INDUSTRY.

Industry.	Number of closed cases.								
	1921 [1]				1922				
	Fatal.	Permanent partial disability.	Temporary total disability.	Total.	Fatal.	Permanent total disability.	Permanent partial disability.	Temporary total disability.	Total.
Lumber	17	66	1,017	1,100	8	1	62	857	928
Mining	18	38	1,160	1,216	9	3	47	881	940
Construction	6	42	760	808	8	2	39	532	581
Manufacture	4	21	469	494	3	.....	22	323	348
Trade	3	23	479	505	2	.....	22	495	519
Transportation	6	16	262	284	3	.....	13	252	268
Agriculture	2	4	37	43	.....	.....	.....	43	43
Stock raising	.....	10	83	93	5	1	8	44	58
Miscellaneous	1	16	283	300	6	.....	24	268	298
Total	57	236	[2] 4,550	4,843	44	7	237	[3] 3,695	3,983

[1] There were no cases of permanent total disability during the year ending Oct. 31, 1921.
[2] In 2,182 cases disability was for less than 1 week.
[3] In 1,707 cases disability was for less than 1 week.

The compensation and medical cost, classified by severity of injury, is shown in the table following:

COMPENSATION AND MEDICAL BENEFITS AWARDED IN CLOSED CASES FOR THE TWO YEARS ENDING OCTOBER 31, 1921 AND 1922.

Severity of injury.	1921			1922		
	Compensation.	Medical aid.[1]	Total.[1]	Compensation.	Medical aid.[1]	Total.[1]
Fatal	$189,346	$2,095	$191,441	$149,923	$3,376	$153,299
Permanent total disability				32,725	2,644	35,369
Permanent partial disability	165,443	30,835	196,278	176,630	38,031	214,661
Temporary total disability	119,670	73,462	193,132	120,961	60,083	181,044
Total	474,459	106,392	580,851	480,239	104,134	584,373

[1] Does not include medical aid furnished by contract hospitals.

The table following shows the number and severity of accidents classified by cause:

NUMBER OF ACCIDENTS (CLOSED CASES) DURING THE TWO YEARS ENDING OCTOBER 31, 1921 AND 1922, BY SEVERITY AND CAUSE.

Cause.	1921 [1]				1922				
	Fatal.	Permanent partial disability.	Temporary total disability.	Total.	Fatal.	Permanent total disability.	Permanent partial disability.	Temporary total disability.	Total.
Machinery	11	53	252	316	5	.....	58	311	374
Falling and flying objects	17	59	1,319	1,395	7	.....	60	976	1,043
Falls	10	25	697	732	10	.....	27	519	556
Hand tools	.....	22	523	545	2	.....	25	432	459
Handling objects	.....	35	911	946	4	1	16	611	632
Vehicles	3	8	196	207	3	1	15	182	201
Animals	2	5	101	108	.....	.....	8	79	87
Dangerous substances	11	11	128	150	6	2	5	117	130
Stepping on objects, etc.	2	11	350	363	3	2	18	378	401
Miscellaneous	1	7	73	81	4	1	5	90	100
Total	57	236	4,550	4,843	44	7	237	3,695	3,983

[1] There were no cases of permanent total disability during the year ending Oct. 31, 1921.

Wisconsin.

THE tenth annual report of the industrial commission of Wisconsin covers its operations under the workmen's compensation law for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1922. During this period 16,820 accidents were reported and 15,852 cases were settled. Benefits aggregated $2,959,974, or an average of $176 per case. Of this sum $2,252,138, or $134 per case, was for indemnity; and $707,836, or $42 per case, was for medical aid. The latter item does not include cases requiring medical aid only. The amount of such aid is estimated at 25 per cent of the sum reported.

Temporary disability cases numbered 89 per cent of those settled, but called for but 32 per cent of the indemnity paid, and 63 per cent of the medical aid, or 39 per cent of the total benefits. There were

138 fatal cases, and 7 cases of permanent total disability, or together about 1 per cent of the total number of cases. However, these cases accounted for 17 per cent of the total benefits and 20 per cent of the indemnity. Permanent partial disability cases were a little less than 10 per cent of the total, calling for 44 per cent of the total benefits and 48 per cent of the indemnity.

The commission made awards in 1,037 cases, of which 20 per cent were submissions on stipulations of facts, the others being contested cases. From its decisions appeals to the circuit court were taken in 64 cases, "the highest number in the history of the act." Of these, 39 were commenced by the employer or the insurance carrier, and 25 by the employee or his dependents. The court handed down 45 decisions, only 3 of which were in reversal of the commission's findings. Two decisions by the supreme court were rendered during the year, both sustaining the action of the commission.

An effort to speed up the making of first payments has been effective, as appears from the fact that during the first half of 1921 only 16.5 per cent of the insurance company cases showed payments in less than two weeks from the date of the injury, while for the first half of 1922 first payments were made within this period in 31.7 per cent of the cases. The improvement by self-insurers is much less, being 14 per cent and 15.9 per cent of the cases for the two periods, respectively. However, it is recorded that "no employer who has been permitted to carry his own risk by an order of the industrial commission has failed to pay a compensation award." At the date of this report there were 377 such employers, with approximately one-third the total pay roll of the State. The number of employers carrying compensation insurance in the State is about 25,000.

The average wage of injured workmen in 1922 was $24.55 per week, as against $28.51 in 1920, since which date there has been a steady decrease. The average in the first year shown, 1915, was $12.81. The number earning $26 per week and over was for the first half of 1915, 0.9 per cent of the total; for the same period in 1921, 56.6 per cent; and for 1922, 37.9 per cent. The highest percentage was during the second half of 1920, when it was 60 per cent of the total number employed. The effect of such increases on compensation payments based on a percentage of the earnings is obvious, as well as the hardship worked by fixed maximums that are not responsive to changing industrial conditions.

LABOR LAWS AND COURT DECISIONS.

Constitutionality of Amendment to Judicial Code as to Stevedores.

THE fact that the work of loading and unloading vessels is local, the workers being domiciled at the port, has led to various efforts to bring them within the scope of State laws providing for compensation for injuries. New York and California were particularly prominent in this respect, the industrial commissions of these two States making awards in numerous claims in behalf of stevedores, longshoremen, etc. In 1917, however, the Supreme Court ruled these occupations exempt from State control (Southern Pac. Co. *v.* Jensen, 244 U. S. 205, 27 Sup. Ct. 524). An amendment of October 6, 1917, undertook to confer upon the State laws jurisdiction in such cases of admiralty as were by choice brought before the industrial commissions for adjustment. The Supreme Court declared this act of Congress unconstitutional as an attempt to delegate to the States the right to act where the Constitution requires uniformity and congressional control (Knickerbocker Ice Co. *v.* Stewart (1920), 253 U. S. 149, 40 Sup. Ct. 438; see MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, June, 1920, p. 171).

In 1922 Congress again attempted an amendment to the Judicial Code which would affect workers other than seamen proper, the idea being that this separation of classes would avoid the condemnation of unconstitutionality. This act (approved June 10, 1922, 42 Stat. 634) was recently before the District Court of the United States for the Southern District of Alabama on the question of its validity (Farrel *v.* Waterman S. S. Co., 286 Fed. 284). Judge Ervin held in this case that the amendment in no way avoided the difficulties involved in that of 1917, the attempt to separate stevedores and longshoremen from masters and members of the crews of vessels being fruitless. "The work of a stevedore is as much of a maritime character as that of a seaman," he said, citing *The Imbrovek*, 234 U. S. 52, 34 Sup. Ct. 733. Both the Jensen case and the Knickerbocker case were also cited in support of the contention that Congress could not delegate to the States the right to make varying provisions for stevedores, inasmuch as they are as fully within the jurisdiction of the admiralty courts as are seamen themselves.

The statute was therefore held unconstitutional, both as attempting to deprive the district courts of their jurisdiction to pass upon all maritime torts, and to authorize the States to pass compensation laws affecting the uniformity of the maritime law.

Compensation for Death Following Slight Injury.

A CASE that was contested in the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania illustrates the causal connection that may entail heavy loss consequent upon an apparently trivial injury (Hornetz *v.* Phila. & Reading Coal & Iron Co., 120 Atl. 662). A workman suffered

a compound fracture of an index finger, and during its treatment he was given a general anæsthetic. His physical condition was such that death followed on account of the dilatation of the heart caused by the use of the anæsthetic. The trial court and the supreme court were one in holding that there was a causal connection calling for the payment of compensation to the widow on account of the death of her husband from an industrial injury.

Jury Trials in Contempt Cases.

THE Legislature of Nevada, in 1913, enacted a law (ch. 94) similar in its terms to a number of laws that have been enacted in various States attempting to regulate the power of the courts to punish for contempt. With practical uniformity such statutes have been declared unconstitutional as an attempt of the legislative branch of the Government to interfere with a coordinate branch in the exercise of one of its essential functions. The statute in question provided in its essential part that in cases of contempt "arising without the immediate view and presence of the court," a jury trial may be demanded; and if the defendant raises objection, the judge of the court held to be in contempt may not preside at the trial.

This provision is recognizable as being of the nature of suggested enactments promoted by labor with the purpose of regulating and modifying the practice of the courts in the matter of punishing contempts where injunctions in labor disputes are involved. The present case did not arise in a labor dispute, but was a conflict between two ranching companies (Pacific Livestock Co. *v.* Ellison Ranching Co., 213 Pac. 700). The fundamental principle, however, is of course the same as would be involved in a labor case.

In discussing the case the court notes that "the question presented is not a new one," but has been passed on by many courts, both State and Federal. "The decisions are uniform to the effect that, while the legislature may enact laws which regulate the exercise of the power of courts to punish for contempt, they can not diminish or abridge that power." The grant of the Constitution in creating coordinate branches of the Government being controlling, if it is found that the act does more than regulate and actually restricts, it is void. A number of decisions were cited as authority for the conclusion reached, "that the three great divisions of this State government must remain separate and distinct, each retaining the powers invested by the Constitution without encroachment one upon the other," and that the statute in question is an intended encroachment and is void.

Unconstitutionality of Wage Payment Law of Indiana.

CHAPTER 51 of the Acts of the Indiana Legislature of 1915 required the payment in full of all wages due any employee within 72 hours after leaving service, whether voluntarily or by discharge. If demand is made, an additional sum accrues equal to

the daily wage for each day until the payment is made. Besides this a penalty might be assessed, as for a misdemeanor, of a fine of not less than $100 or more than $500.

The constitutionality of these sections (3 and 4) of the statute was challenged in a case recently before the supreme court of the State, with the result that they were found to be invalid, as unreasonable and denying due process and equal protection of the laws guaranteed by the fourteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution. (State *v.* Martin, 139 N. E. 282.) Admitting the desirability of preventing oppression of the wage earner, and granting that the legislature might properly exercise a wide discretion, it was said that this law went beyond the proper bounds in assessing penalties out of proportion to the damages that would be actually sustained if the law was not complied with. These penalties were so oppressive that even unjust demands might be acceded to for fear of the accumulating burdens and the expense of litigation necessary finally to determine the facts. The statute was therefore put in the same class as the one, similar in some respects, which was recently found unconstitutional by the same court in the case Superior Laundry Co. *v.* Rose, 137 N. E. 761. (See MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for April, pp. 148, 149.)

Wage Provision of Industrial Court Law of Kansas held Unconstitutional.

THE Supreme Court of the United States recently had before it on a writ of error to the Supreme Court of Kansas the case of the Chas. Wolff Packing Co. *v.* Court of Industrial Relations of the State of Kansas, the opinion being delivered June 11, 1923. In this case the court had fixed a wage scale for the employees of the company in advance of the amount fixed by the company itself, though it had operated at a loss of $100,000 the previous year. This action was sustained by the supreme court of the State, and the statute held constitutional as conferring wage fixing powers upon the court (Court of Industrial Relations *v.* Chas. Wolff Packing Co. (1921), 109 Kans. 629, 201 Pac. 418; MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, Jan. 1922, pp. 194, 195. Same *v.* Same (1922), 111. Kans. 501, 207 Pac. 806; MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, Nov. 1922, pp. 200–202).

The act (Acts of 1920, Special Session, ch. 29) declared certain activities to be affected with a public interest, including the manufacture and preparation of food, the production of fuel, transportation, etc. Power to adjust labor disputes in these industries and to fix wages and other terms of employment was conferred upon a court of three judges, who might act either on complaint or on their own initiative.

The company involved in this case was engaged in the preparation of meat for sale and shipment, selling more than half its products beyond the State. It had about 300 employees, which constituted a small establishment as compared with others in the State. Its products were sold in business association with what were called "the Allied Packers," in competition with the so-called "Big Five." The head of the Wolff Co. stated that he was able to secure all the labor desired at the reduced rates offered, though at the same time a

strike was threatened in the packing houses of the "Big Five." The industrial court conceded that the Wolff Co. could not pay the wages prescribed without a loss, but "relied on the statement by its president that he hoped for more prosperous times."

The opinion of the Supreme Court was delivered by Mr. Chief Justice Taft, and there was no dissent. The single feature involved was the constitutionality of the law under the terms of the fourteenth amendment, which declares that no State shall deprive any person of liberty or property without due process of law. The Chief Justice first stated the facts as above, and then announced the "necessary postulate of the industrial court act" as being the interest of the people in the production of food, fuel, etc., so that the State may order its continuance on terms fixed by an agency of the State if owners and workers can not agree, though the court may permit the owner to go out of business if he shows that collapse will follow its continuance on the terms fixed—a privilege characterized as "under the circumstances generally illusory." Also, a workman may quit individually, but can not agree with others to do so. It was said that these qualifications do not change the essence of the act, which curtails the rights of both employers and employees to contract about their affairs. This right of contract "is part of the liberty of the individual protected by the guaranty of the due process clause of the fourteenth amendment. While there is no such thing as absolute freedom of contract and it is subject to a variety of restraints, they must not be arbitrary or unreasonable. The legislative authority to abridge can be justified only by exceptional circumstances."

It was contended by the State that such exceptional circumstances existed, since the preparation of human food is declared by the legislature to be affected by a public interest; and this being the case, the power to fix wages and terms of employment to secure continuity of operation is within the power of regulation. Three classes of business were said to be clothed with a public interest, justifying some public regulations: Those carried on under the authority of a public grant of privilege, implying the duty of rendering a public service, such as railroads; the keeping of inns, cabs, and grist mills, which have long been subject to control on account of exceptional public interest attaching; and those which have risen to the nature of a public interest by reason of the peculiar relation to the public, the business being devoted by the owner to the public use, by which he subjects himself to public regulation, as warehouses, waterworks, banking, etc. "The mere declaration by a legislature that a business is affected with a public interest is not conclusive of the question," but the subject would be one of judicial inquiry. The public is concerned in "all lawful business because it contributes to the prosperity and well being of the people," but "it is very difficult under the cases to lay down a working rule by which readily to determine when a business has become clothed with a public interest." However, even if the preparation of food could be put in the third class of quasi-public business, it would not be subject to such regulations as the act attempts.

To say that a business is clothed with a public interest is not to determine what regulation may be permissible in view of the private rights of the owner. The extent to which an inn or a cab system may be regulated may differ widely from that allow-

able as to a railroad or other common carrier. It is not a matter of legislative discretion solely. It depends on the nature of the business, on the feature which touches the public, and on the abuses reasonably to be feared. To say that a business is clothed with a public interest is not to import that the public may take over its entire management and run it at the expense of the owner. The extent to which regulation may reasonably go varies with different kinds of business. The regulation of rates to avoid monopoly is one thing. The regulation of wages is another. A business may be of such character that only the first is permissible, while another may involve such a possible danger of monopoly on the one hand, and such disaster from stoppage on the other, that both come within the public concern and power of regulation.

The act in question, in carrying out its purpose to secure continuity of food, clothing, and fuel supply, binds the employer to pay the wages fixed, and forbids the workman to strike against them, though he is not required to work. This requires the worker "to give up that means of putting himself on an equality with his employer which action in concert with his fellows gives him."

A case strongly relied upon to sustain the law in question was that of Munn *v.* Illinois, 94 U. S. 103; but the theory that business can be required to continue even at a loss was said not to be sustained by this decision, as shown by the following quotation therefrom:

Property does become clothed with a public interest when used in a manner to make it of public consequence and affect the community at large. When, therefore, one devotes his property to a use in which the public has an interest, he in effect grants to the public an interest in that use, and must submit to be controlled by the public for the common good the extent of the interest he has thus created. He may withdraw his grant by discontinuing the use; but so long as he maintains the use, he must submit to the control.

The owner has made at most only a revocable grant. This principle affects not only the owner or employer, but even more strongly the status of the employee.

It involves a more drastic exercise of control to impose limitations of continuity growing out of the public character of the business upon the employee than upon the employer; and without saying that such limitations upon both may not be sometimes justified, it must be where the obligation to the public of continuous service is direct, clear and mandatory and arises as a contractual condition express or implied of entering the business either as owner or worker. It can only arise when investment by the owner and entering the employment by the worker create a conventional relation to the public somewhat equivalent to the appointment of officers and the enlistment of soldiers and sailors in military service.

We are considering the validity of the act as compelling the employer to pay the adjudged wages, and as forbidding the employees to combine against working and receiving them. The penalties of the act are directed against effort of either side to interfere with the settlement by arbitration. Without this joint compulsion, the whole theory and purpose of the act would fail. The State can not be heard to say, therefore, that upon complaint of the employer, the effect upon the employee should not be a factor in our judgment.

Justification for such regulation was said by the State to be found in the case of Wilson *v.* New, 243 U. S. 332, 37 Sup. Ct. 298, in which the law establishing a basic eight-hour working-day and a wage rate for railroad employees was upheld. However, this was a business of a public nature which Congress might regulate under the commerce power, and the wages prescribed were "not confiscatory, but obligatory on both for a reasonable time to enable them to agree." In conclusion Mr. Chief Justice Taft said:

It is urged that under this act, the exercise of the power of compulsory arbitration rests upon the existence of a temporary emergency as in Wilson *v.* New. If that is a real factor here as in Wilson *v.* New, and in Block *v.* Hirsh, 256 U. S. 135, 157, 41 Sup. Ct. 458

(see Mahon *v.* Pennsylvania, decided December 11, 1922) it is enough to say that the great temporary public exigencies recognized by all and declared by Congress, were very different from that upon which the control under this act is asserted. Here it is said to be the danger that a strike in one establishment may spread to all the other similar establishments of the State and county and thence to all the national sources of food supply so as to produce a shortage. Whether such danger exists has not been determined by the legislature but is determined under the law by a subordinate agency and on its findings and prophecy, owners and employers are to be deprived of freedom of contract and workers of a most important element of their freedom of labor. The small extent of the injury to the food supply of Kansas to be inflicted by a strike and suspension of this packing company's plant is shown in the language of the Kansas Supreme Court in this case (Court of Industrial Relations *v.* Packing Co., 111 Kans. 501, 207 Pac. 806):

"The defendant's plant is a small one and it may be admitted that if it should cease to operate, the effect on the supply of meat and food in this State would not greatly inconvenience the people of Kansas; yet the plant manufactures food products and supplies meat to a part of the people of this State and if it should cease to operate that source of supply would be cut off."

The Supreme Court's construction of the operation and effect of the act is controlling. The language quoted shows how drastic and all-inclusive it is.

But the chief and conclusive distinction between Wilson *v.* New and the case before us is that already referred to. The power of a legislature to compel continuity in a business can only arise where the obligation of continued service by the owner and its employees is direct and is assumed when the business is entered upon. A common carrier which accepts a railroad franchise is not free to withdraw the use of that which it has granted to the public. It is true that if operation is impossible without continuous loss, Brooks-Scanlon Co. *v.* R. R. Commission, 251 U. S. 396; Bullock *v.* R. R. Commission, 254 U. S. 513, it may give up its franchise and enterprise, but short of this, it must continue. Not so the owner when by mere changed conditions his business becomes clothed with a public interest. He may stop at will whether the business be losing or profitable.

The minutely detailed Government supervision, including that of their relations to their employees, to which the railroads of the country have been gradually subjected by Congress through its power over interstate commerce, furnishes no precedent for regulation of the business of the plaintiff in error whose classification as public is at the best doubtful. It is not too much to say that the ruling in Wilson *v.* New went to the border line although it concerned an interstate common carrier in the presence of a nation-wide emergency and the possibility of great disaster. Certainly there is nothing to justify extending the drastic regulation sustained in that exceptional case to the one before us.

We think the industrial court act in so far as it permits the fixing of wages in plaintiff in error's packing house is in conflict with the fourteenth amendment and deprives it of its property and liberty of contract without due process of law.

The judgment of the court below must be reversed.

It will be observed that the opinion is limited in terms to a declaration of the invalidity of the act as attempting to authorize the fixing of wages in a single establishment, which is described by the court as one of comparatively small economic importance. Many features of the law are unaffected by this decision, but the power to fix wages was one of importance. Unmistakably, the extent to which a business, declared by the legislature, or even such by common consent, is subject to State direction and control, is a question, "not a matter of legislative discretion only," but one that may be tested by the courts in the light of constitutional limitations and established precedent.

Labor Code of Russia, 1922.

THE All-Russian Central Executive Committee issued an order on November 9, 1922, bringing into operation the Labor Code of Russia of 1922. This order made the code effective November 15, 1922, and all laws which were inconsistent with the code were rendered inoperative, there being a provision, however, that the Council of People's Commissaries, on the recommendation of the People's Labor Commissariat, should publish by December 1, 1922, a collection of the legislative provisions affecting labor which would remain in operation after the 1922 code became effective. The manner of applying and administering the provisions of the code is to be determined by orders and instructions issued by the Council of People's Commissaries, the Council of Labor and Defense, and the People's Labor Commissariat. The code applies throughout the territory of the Soviet Republic and all the autonomous soviet republics and territories associated therewith.

The code has 17 subdivisions and its comprehensiveness can be judged by their titles. They are: (1) General provisions; (2) engagement and supply of labor; (3) calling up of nationals of the R. F. S. S. R. (Soviet Republic) for compulsory labor service; (4) collective contracts; (5) contracts of work; (6) rules of employment; (7) standards of output; (8) remuneration for work; (9) guaranties and compensation; (10) hours of work; (11) rest periods; (12) apprenticeship; (13) work of women and young persons; (14) protection of workers; (15) trade-unions of wage-earning and salaried employees, and their representative bodies in undertakings, institutions, and businesses; (16) organizations for the settlement of disputes and investigation of complaints respecting contraventions of labor laws; (17) social insurance.

Violations of the provisions of the code are punishable under the Penal Code of the Soviet Republic, as amended and supplemented by an order of the Central Executive Committee, dated October 31, 1922, sections 132 to 135, 156, 165, 217, and 221 being particularly applicable.

The Labor Code applies to "all persons performing work for remuneration, including home workers, and shall be binding on all undertakings, institutions, and businesses (whether State, military, public, or private, including those which give out work to be done at home), and also on all persons who employ others for remuneration." Under the head of "General provisions" there is a provision making void every labor contract or agreement which is less favorable as regards labor conditions than the provisions of the code.

Engagement and Supply of Labor.

UNDER the second title, "Engagement and supply of labor," a system of control over unemployment is created. An employer needing labor must make application to a local representative of the People's Labor Commissariat, who has on file a register of the unemployed. The local representative sends such persons as can meet the requirements set forth in the application to such employer, who in turn reports to the local representative concerning the engagement or

rejection of the persons directed to him. Engagement of workers independent of the local representative is permitted in cases where "political fidelity or special knowledge inseparable from the personality of the employee is required" and "in cases where the representative of the P. L. C. [People's Labor Commissariat] fails to offer any workers within three days of the making of the application." The employer is made responsible "(*a*) for any inaccuracy in the statements made by him respecting the conditions laid down for the offered work; (*b*) for any failure to fulfill the duties undertaken by him in connection with the engagement; and (*c*) for any unlawful rejection of the workers assigned to him."

Compulsory Labor Service for the State.

THE third title of the code provides that in special cases, such as lack of workers to carry out important State work, nationals of the Soviet Republic may be drafted for compulsory labor service. Exceptions are made in the case of young persons, old persons, persons incapacitated by illness or injury, pregnant women, nursing mothers, disabled men, and women with children under eight years of age. Other exceptions may be specified by the Council of People's Commissaries, the Council of Labor and Defense, and the People's Labor Commissariat.

Collective Agreements.

THE fourth title covers collective agreements. It provides that "A collective contract shall mean an agreement concluded between a trade-union [productive union] as representatives of the wage-earning and salaried employees on the one hand, and an employer on the other hand, fixing the conditions of work and employment for individual undertakings, institutions, and business or groups thereof, and specifying the contents of future individual contracts of employment or work." It is provided that the terms of the collective contract shall apply to all persons, whether members or non-members of the trade-union making the agreement, employed in the specified undertaking or institution. The collective contract may cover a whole branch of production, business, or administration, or be merely local, but where a general contract exists, a local contract will be permitted only in the cases and in the manner specified in the general collective contract. Assets of trade-unions are not to be liable for the fulfillment of collective contracts. Every collective contract is to be registered by the representative of the People's Labor Commissariat, who is given authority to annul any part of the contract which is less favorable to the situation of the wage-earning and salaried employees than existing labor legislation.

Contracts of Employment.

THE fifth title covers the subject of individual contract employment. A contract of work is stated to mean "an agreement between two or more persons whereby one party (the employee) places his labor at the disposal of the other party (the employer) in return for

remuneration." These contracts are permitted whether or not a collective contract exists, but any term in the contract which renders the conditions of work less favorable than those laid down in the labor laws, in the collective contract, or in the rules of employment in force, or which is intended to limit the political and general civil rights of the worker, is void. Immediately upon the conclusion of the contract of work a wages book is to be issued to every wage-earning and salaried employee in the undertaking. A contract of work may be concluded either with an individual or with a group of individuals. The term may be "(*a*) for a specified period not exceeding one year; (*b*) for an indefinite period; (*c*) for the time required to carry out specified work." An employee shall not be required to do any other kind of work than that for which he is engaged, except in special cases. If the work is to be of long duration, a probationary period is allowed, and provision is made for notice to the representative of the People's Labor Commissariat of the result of the probation. The employer must furnish the employee, on request, a certificate stating the period for which and the capacity in which he was employed, and the insertion of any secretly agreed signs in the certificate is prohibited. Secret communication between employers as to the imposition of conditions in the engagement of employees is forbidden. Contracts are to expire "(*a*) by agreement between the parties; (*b*) on the expiration of the term for which it was concluded; (*c*) on the completion of the work agreed upon; (*d*) on the giving of notice by either party as provided by the code." A contract of work concluded for an indefinite period and unexpired c ntracts concluded for a definite period can be terminated by the employer only in the case of going out of business or closing down for more than one month; for the obvious unfitness of the employee; for the failure of the employee to fulfill his duties without any sufficient reason therefor; when the employee commits any criminal action directly connected with his work; when the employee is absent from his work more than three consecutive days or more than six days altogether in a month without sufficient reason; and when the employee is absent for more than two months because of temporary loss of working capacity. A contract of work concluded for a specified period may be terminated by the employee before the expiration of the agreed time if his wages are not paid when due; if the employer fails in his duties; if the employee is badly treated; in cases specially provided for by law; and in the event of deterioration of the sanitary and hygienic conditions of work. Every contract of work may be terminated on the demand of the trade-union.

Rules for Employment of Labor.

RULES governing the employment of labor are provided for by the sixth title. Undertakings where not less than five persons are employed must adopt rules of employment, which must be clear, precise, and exhaustive, respecting the duties of the employees and the management, and the liability for violations thereof. Such rules must be brought to the knowledge of all the workers concerned. Model rules of employment are to be issued by the People's Labor

Commissariat in agreement with the All-Russian Central Council of Trade-Unions and the Supreme Economic Council. Rules must not be contrary to labor laws and regulations and existing collective contracts.

Standards of Production.

TWO sections of the code under the title "Standards of output" provide that the management, in agreement with the trade-union, shall fix certain standards, and that an employee who through his own fault fails to attain the prescribed standard shall receive wages proportionate to the work done, and in case of persistent failure to attain the standard shall be dismissed from the service.

Wages.

UNDER the eighth title of the code, wages are to be fixed by collective and individual contracts of work. The amount of the wage is not to be less than the compulsory minimum wage for the class of work in question, and the contract may fix either a time rate or a piece rate. The amount paid for overtime, for the first two hours, must not be less than one and one-half times the normal wage, and for subsequent hours than twice the normal wage. If the employee performs different kinds of work he is to be paid on the basis of the work of higher value. In case of permanent employment, wages are to be paid at regular intervals, not less frequently than once every two weeks; and in case of temporary employment lasting less than two weeks, they are to be paid upon the completion of the work. Payment is to be made in cash, during working hours, and at the actual working place.

Guaranties and Compensation.

UNDER the title of "Guaranties and compensation," provision is made for the protection of the employee with relation to wages earned, and for the payment of the wages in particular circumstances. Employees are to receive their average earnings for the time spent in voting, or as a witness in a court of law, and in attending certain congresses so far as they fall within working hours. Employees called up for the army are to receive two weeks' compensation, if losing their employment on account thereof. When traveling on business for the employer, the employee is to be paid his traveling expenses, and if transferred to another place by the employer shall be paid the expenses of removal to that place. Damage caused by the employee through culpable negligence or failure to observe the rules of employment is to be paid for out of his earnings. The employer shall furnish, free, tools and also clothes in cases involving rapid wear. If a contract of employment is terminated by reason of the closing of the business or of the employee's unfitness for work, and in some other cases, the employer is obliged to pay two weeks' earnings to the employee or give him two weeks' notice before dismissal. Employees disabled by illness shall be entitled to have their positions held open for two months, and child-bearing women for four months. If the employer becomes bankrupt, wage claims are granted preference over other debts.

Hours of Work.

THE law with reference to hours of work is set forth under the tenth title, which provides that the "normal hours of work, both in production and in the accessory work necessary to production, shall not exceed eight hours," nor six hours where the persons are between 16 and 18 years of age, where the work is of an intellectual nature, or where the persons are employed underground. The hours for night work shall be one hour less. Employees shall be granted a break in the working hours for the purpose of rest or a meal, and they may use this time in any way they please. Overtime work is allowed only in special cases, which are set forth in the code. No employee shall be permitted to work more than 120 hours of overtime a year, and persons under 18 years of age shall not be allowed to work overtime under any circumstances.

Rest Periods.

UNDER the eleventh title of the code rest periods are provided for. Every employee is to be granted an uninterrupted weekly rest period of not less than 42 hours, the weekly rest day to be on Sunday or any other day of the week, according to the national or denominational composition of the body of the employees in each locality. Undertakings the nature of which necessitate continuous work are not brought within this rule, but special rest days are to be provided for therein. No work is to be done on six of the national holidays. An annual vacation of not less than two weeks' duration is to be granted to every employee who has worked uninterruptedly for not less than five and one-half months, and one of not less than one month to those under 18 years of age. Persons employed in especially dangerous and noxious undertakings are to be granted not less than two weeks' additional leave.

Apprenticeship.

UNDER the twelfth title the law makes provision for apprenticeship. Apprentices are "persons who receive instruction in methods of work in apprentice schools, training classes and workshops, and also individually under the guidance of skilled workers." The period of apprenticeship and the number of apprentices for the various occupations are to be fixed by the People's Labor Commissariat in agreement with the Central Council of Trade-Unions. On the completion of his apprenticeship the apprentice shall be subjected to a test. The People's Labor Commissariat is given broad powers in connection with apprenticeship.

Work of Women and Young Persons.

THE work of women and young persons is treated under the thirteenth title. Women and young persons under 18 years of age are not to be employed in particularly heavy and unhealthy work, in underground work, nor at night. Specified periods of exemption from employment are provided for pregnant women and nursing

mothers. Young persons under 16 years of age are not to be employed, except that in special cases young persons over 14 years may be granted permission by the labor inspector to work not more than four hours daily. The minimum number of minors to be employed in the various branches of industry is to be fixed by the People's Labor Commissariat.

Protective Provisions.

THE fourteenth title treats of the protection of workers. The People's Labor Commissariat is granted broad powers in the administration of the protective and safety measures set forth in the law. Employees on certain classes of work shall be supplied with special clothing and protective apparatus at the expense of the employer. Where there is risk of industrial poisoning, antidotes are to be supplied. Physical examinations of employees in industries dangerous to health are provided for. Night work in undertakings where it is not necessary or is injurious to health may be prohibited by the People's Labor Commissariat in agreement with the Central Council of Trade-Unions.

Trade-Unions.

TRADE-UNIONS (productive unions) are the subject of the fifteenth title. These unions may enter into collective contracts on behalf of wage earners and represent them in all matters relating to work and conditions of life. Such unions "organized in accordance with the principles drawn up by the competent congresses of these bodies shall not be liable to registration by State officers as prescribed for associations and unions in general, but shall be registered with the central federations to which they are affiliated in accordance with the conditions prescribed by the All-Russian Congress of Trade-Unions." Associations not registered with the central federation are not entitled to call themselves trade-unions nor to claim the rights of such unions. These unions may acquire and manage property and conclude contracts, agreements, etc., of all kinds under existing legislation. State authorities must furnish to the unions buildings for offices, and postal, telegraph, telephone, railway, and water transport service. The committee of wage earning and salaried employees, or an authorized delegate, shall be the representative of the union in the undertaking or business. This committee shall safeguard, before the employer and before the Government, the interests of the employees which it represents. It is charged with the duty of seeing that the employer complies with the legislative provisions concerning the protection of workers, of taking steps to improve the condition of employees, of cooperating in the carrying on of production in State undertakings, and of participating in the regulation and organization of economic activities through the competent trade-unions. The number of employees who shall be released from their regular work to carry on the work of the committee shall be fixed according to the number of employees in the undertaking, and these employees shall be paid for the time lost by serving on the committee. The expenses of the committee, not to exceed 2 per cent of the total pay roll of the undertaking, shall be paid by the employer. He shall also furnish

a room for the use of the committee, access to which is free to all persons having business with the committee. Violations of the provisions of this title are punishable by imprisonment for not less than six months and a fine or confiscation of property.

Settlement of Disputes.

UNDER the sixteenth title, provision is made for the settlement of disputes and investigations of complaints. It is provided that "complaints respecting contraventions of the labor laws and likewise all disputes arising in connection with employment for remuneration shall be settled either by compulsory proceedings at special sessions of the people's court, or by conciliation procedure before an assessment and disputes committee, or a conciliation board, or arbitration court organized in accordance with the principle of joint representation of the parties." This subdivision prescribes the proper procedure in case of disputes or of violations of the labor laws. "Appeals shall not be lodged against decisions of assessment and disputes committees, agreements before conciliation boards which are declared binding, or decisions of an arbitration court."

Social Insurance.

THE last title of the code covers the subject of social insurance. It provides that "the social insurance system shall cover all employees irrespective of whether the undertakings, institutions, and businesses in which they are employed are State, public, cooperative, established under a concession or lease, of mixed character, or private, or whether they are employed by private individuals, and also irrespective of the nature and duration of their employment and the method of remuneration." The social insurance system covers: "(*a*) The granting of sick benefit; (*b*) the granting of benefit in case of temporary loss of working capacity (illness, injury, quarantine, pregnancy, confinement, care of a sick member of the family); (*c*) the granting of supplementary benefits (for the nursing of children, medical requisites, funerals); (*d*) the granting of unemployment benefit; (*e*) the granting of invalidity benefit; (*f*) the granting of benefit to the families of employees in case of the death or total disappearance of their breadwinner." The insurance contributions, to be fixed as percentages of the pay roll and according to the degree of unhealthfulness or danger of the undertaking, are to be made by the employer, and shall not be deducted from the wages of the employees. If the available moneys are insufficient, the central authorities for social insurance are given authority to reduce temporarily the amount of benefits in certain cases. Pregnancy and maternity benefits shall be paid to an insured person during the whole period allowed by the law, and in addition a lump-sum supplementary benefit is to be paid on the birth of a child. Funeral expenses are to be paid on the death of an insured person or of a member of the family of an insured person for whose maintenance he was responsible. Unemployment benefits are to be paid, the rate to be not less than one-sixth of the average earnings current in the locality. The period for which the benefit may be granted

shall be fixed by the authorities according to qualifications and period of employment, but the maximum period shall not be less than six months. "In the event of the death or duly certified total disappearance of a person employed for remuneration the following members of his family shall be entitled to insurance benefit, provided that they have not adequate means of subsistence and that the insured person defrayed the cost of their maintenance: (*a*) Children and brothers and sisters under age, until they have attained the age of 16 years; (*b*) parents and husbands or wives who are incapable of work; (*c*) adult members of the family who are capable of work but have children under eight years of age to support."

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

Trade-Unionism in Canada, 1922.

THE statistics given below, showing the membership in Canadian labor organizations in 1922 and the decreases in such membership as compared with 1921, are taken from the twelfth annual report on labor organizations in Canada, published by the department of labor of that country:

MEMBERSHIP IN CANADIAN LABOR ORGANIZATIONS, 1922.

Class of union.	Membership in 1922.	Decrease in membership since 1921.
International	206,150	16,746
Noninternational	22,973	1,507
Independent units	[1] 9,063	6,581
National and Catholic	38,335	6,665
One Big Union	[2]	
Total	276,521	[3] 31,499

[1] Reported membership of 19 of 25 independent units.
"The general officers of the organization having refused to supply any information and only 1 of the 34 units recorded in 1921 having reported," the Department of Labor has deleted the remaining 33 from the report and places the membership at 100.
[3] Not including any losses of One Big Union.

In 1922 there were 2,512 local branches, 156 less than in the preceding year. The loss in local branches in 1921 was 250. As many of the unions do not keep separate records of male and female members, the Canadian Department of Labor was not able to secure exact figures on this subject. In the above-mentioned report, however, the following statement is made:

Of the 92 international organizations with branches in Canada only 12 were able to give the desired information, the total female members reported in the Canadian membership being 8,037 of the aggregate international membership of 206,150; 3 noninternational bodies reported 251 females in their membership of 22,973, and the national and Catholic unions gave 605 out of 38,335, making a total reported female membership in the Dominion of 8,893—354 less than the number reported in 1921. Fifteen international organizations furnished figures showing a female membership of 104,059 in all parts of their respective jurisdictions outside of Canada. It is apparent that this reported female membership is far below the actual number of woman workers connected with organized labor, when it is mentioned that there are 77 organizations besides those which reported, membership in some of which is open to females, but, as above stated, they do not keep separate records of male and female members.

The Canadian Trades and Labor Congress reported at its 1922 convention a total membership of 132,071, distributed in 1,771 local branches, a loss of 41,707 members and 193 branches as compared with the 1921 figures.

The expenditures for trade-union benefits in the United States and Canada for 1922 by central international organizations aggregated $26,378,729, an advance of $2,288,893 over the amount reported in 1921. The greater number of international unions keep no separate account for their members in Canada.

In addition to benefits that may have been paid from the headquarters of the international unions, certain local branch organizations in the Dominion disbursed to their own members, in 1922, $535,450 in benefits ($968,105 less than in 1921), as follows:

Death benefits	$121,278
Unemployed benefits	48,643
Strike benefits	123,693
Sick benefits	201,107
Other benefits	40,729

Among the subjects taken up at some length in the report are the organization of Catholic workers, revolutionary labor organizations, and the growth of labor political organizations. One section is devoted to associations of Canadian wage earners which are not identified with the organized labor movement, numbering 63 with a membership of 81,373, representing an increase of 38,075 over the number reported in 1921. The three outstanding groups of this character are school-teachers, Government employees, and commercial travelers.

There are 24 different trade-union journals and labor papers published in the Dominion in the interests either of special crafts or of labor in general.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.

Industrial Disputes in British India, 1922.

THE following table, quoted from the Labor Gazette (Bombay), April, 1923 (p. 23), gives details regarding industrial disputes in British India during 1922:

INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES IN BRITISH INDIA DURING 1922.

Province.	Number of disputes.	Number of workers involved.	Number of working-days lost.
Bombay	145	159,963	763,111
Bengal	87	198,702	1,803,750
United Provinces	12	17,777	376,939
Bihar and Orissa	12	34,142	744,941
Madras	11	3,361	40,936
Burma	9	11,434	121,238
Central Provinces	4	9,208	102,986
Total	280	434,587	3,953,901

Statistics shown in the table for 1922 represent decreases in number of disputes, of workers involved, and working days lost as compared with similar data for 1921, the figures for that year being 400, 523,155, and 6,637,862, respectively. Of the strikes during 1922, 127 were due to differences regarding wages and 32 involved the question of the bonus.

Strike Settlements in Sweden, First Four Months of 1923.[1]

DURING the first four months of 1923, the labor troubles which were threatening in Sweden, terminated in strikes and lockouts in a number of industries, affecting Sweden's industrial life to a marked degree. During February, March, and the first half of April, 1923, production in three of the country's most important standard industries—sawmilling, the wood-pulp industry, and the iron industry—has been practically at a standstill. No stoppage of work of such long duration or such widespread effect has taken place in Sweden since 1909, the year of the general strike. Industries involved in disputes in addition to the three given above are the paper, machine-shop, and logging industries, and stevedoring in Goteborg.

[1] The data on which this article is based are from Sociala Meddelanden No. 4, 1923, Stockholm; Ekonomisk Översikt Nos. 1 and 2, 1923, Stockholm; Arbejdsgiveren No. 6, 1923, Copenhagen; and current issues of Fackföreningsrörelsen (Stockholm).

Sawmills.

THE general agreement in the sawmilling industry expired February 1, 1923, after notice of termination had been given by the employers, and a lockout affecting about 130 to 140 establishments and about 24,000 men became effective on that date. The employers demanded a 12 per cent reduction in wages and the workers a 10 per cent increase. After a two-months' lockout an agreement was arrived at March 29, effective until February 1, 1924, for local agreements, and February 1, 1926, for the general agreement.

This agreement is a renewal of the wage terms of 1922. The new general regulations are mainly the same as the previous ones effective since the beginning of 1920, except with regard to compensation for overtime and vacations. Overtime rates were fixed at 40, 75, and 100 per cent above regular rates. Vacation pay, which was decreased, was fixed as follows: Workers 18 years of age and over who during the previous year worked not less than three months are to receive vacation pay of 10 kronor ($2.68, par). This is increased 6 kronor ($1.61, par) for each additional month worked until it reaches 40 kronor ($10.72, par) for those who worked eight months or over during the previous year. Workers under 18 years of age receive one-half of these amounts.

Ironworks.

A LOCKOUT affecting about 20,000 workmen in the ironworks began January 29, 1923, and was due mainly to a dispute over hours of work. This dispute is not yet settled. The lockout in this industry which took place in 1920 was of much shorter duration than the one now in force, and not since 1909 has the iron industry been at a standstill for so long a period.

Wage reductions in this industry at the end of 1922 amounted to about 46 per cent of peak wages in 1920.

For the last two years the ironworkers have worked without collective agreements.

Wood-pulp Industry.

IN THE wood-pulp industry the wage agreement expired automatically at the end of 1922. Upon the expiration of the agreement wages became the subject of a controversy which resulted in a number of strikes and a lockout on February 1; these disputes affected about 90 factories and 17,000 men. An agreement was reached April 6, effective up to and including December 31, 1924.

This agreement applies only to wages, as an agreement made in 1921 is still in effect with regard to general labor conditions. Certain changes were made in the provisions of the former wage agreement by which the factories are divided into five classes according to locality and the cost of living there, with a difference of 20 per cent in the wages of the highest and the lowest classes as against a difference of 22 per cent in the previous agreement. The workers, as before, are divided into three wage groups and these wage groups in turn are divided into grades, so that the total number of wage rates is about 37.

The wage rates provided by the agreement show an increase over the hourly earnings in the last part of 1922, of 5 öre (1.3 cents, par) for most of the workers. The amount lost to the workers since the 10 öre per hour reduction in wages became effective at the beginning of the year, is to be repaid as soon as the local agreements are signed.

Machine Shops.

BECAUSE of wage reductions throughout the industry, strikes were called in the machine shops in Sweden early in 1923.

An agreement was reached on March 10, effective until January 1, 1924, by which the shops are grouped into three classes, according to location, and a minimum wage is fixed for each class of labor. The minimum wage in each class is shown in the table following:

MINIMUM WAGE RATES PER HOUR IN MACHINE SHOPS IN SWEDEN, UNDER AGREEMENT OF MARCH 10, 1923.

[1 öre at par=0.268 cent.]

Class and location of factory.	Skilled workers 24 years of age or over with 7 or more years' experience.		Skilled workers 21 years of age or over with 4 or more years' experience.		Unskilled workers 20 years of age or over.[1]		Female workers, new rate.
	Old rate.	New rate.	Old rate.	New rate.	Old rate.	New rate.	
	Öre.	Öre.	Öre.	Öre.	Öre.	Öre.	Öre.
I—Stockholm and vicinity	90	88	87	82	84	75	57
II—97 districts	85	80	82	73	79	66	50
III—40 smaller districts	83	74	80	67	78	62	47

[1] Skilled laborers 20 years of age or over with less than 4 years' experience receive the same wages as unskilled laborers.

According to the agreement, no change of rates may be made during the period of the agreement without the consent of both parties.

Wages had been reduced 44 to 46 per cent since 1920—about 20 per cent in 1921, and 24 to 26 per cent at the beginning of 1922. The present wage agreement is practically a status quo settlement on basis of wages in force on January 1, 1923.

Since January 1, 1922, the machine shops had worked without an agreement.

Paper Mills.

IN A dispute in the paper industry the conciliator brought about an agreement February 21, 1923, effective until February 1, 1924, and covering about 9,000 men. No stoppage of work was caused by this dispute.

The new agreement in the main extends the 1922 agreement. The principal gain was that in the classification of localities with reference to cost of living, some workers are placed in a higher class. In the old agreement the difference between the highest and lowest wages was 30 per cent, except in one instance in which it was 25 per cent. In this agreement there are six locality classes, wages in

Class VI being 24 per cent less than wages in Class I. In each factory the workers are divided into eight wage groups according to skill and responsibility. Group 8 includes only women. The total reduction in wages since 1920 is about 54 per cent. The table following gives the wage rates established by the agreement of February 21, 1923:

HOURLY WAGE RATES IN THE PAPER INDUSTRY IN SWEDEN UNDER AGREEMENT OF FEBRUARY 21, 1923, BY WAGE GROUPS AND LOCALITY CLASSES.

[1 öre at par=0.268 cent.]

Wage group.	Locality class.					
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.
	Öre.	*Öre.*	*Öre.*	*Öre.*	*Öre.*	*Öre.*
Group 1 (unskilled, etc.)	77	73	69	65	62	59
Group 2 (barkermen, screenmen)	79	75	71	67	63	60
Group 3 (bleachmen, etc.)	81	77	73	69	65	62
Group 4	84	80	76	71	67	64
Group 5	89	85	80	76	71	68
Group 6	94	89	85	80	75	71
Group 7 (machinemen)	98	93	88	83	78	74
Group 8 (women)	48	46	43	41	38	36

Building Materials Industry.

UPON the expiration of the agreement in the building-materials industry at the end of 1922 a dispute over wages began which led to a lockout effective March 1 and involving about 5,000 workers. An agreement was reached April 6, 1923. That part of the agreement made between the unskilled and factory workers' union and the building material association renews the previous agreement, wages being fixed at 80 öre (21.4 cents, par) in Class I, 75 öre (20.1 cents, par) in Class II, 70 öre (18.8 cents, par) in Class III, and 60 öre (16.1 cents, par) in Class IV. The agreement will expire at the end of 1924.

Stevedoring—Goteborg Harbor.

A STRIKE of the stevedores in Goteborg Harbor became effective February 16, 1923. It was caused by a dispute regarding overtime and transportation time to and from work and the employers' demand for a 10 per cent wage reduction. No agreement was in force for stevedoring work, and Goteborg was not included in the agreements made for southern Sweden.

The strike was finally settled after three months. It was agreed that overtime should not exceed 20 hours per week in the case of work on certain ships, 25 hours on others, and that the time lost in going to and from work should not be paid for except when it exceeds 10 minutes. No change is to be made in the wage rate until the end of the year.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.

Conciliation Work of the Department of Labor in May, 1923.

By HUGH L. KERWIN, DIRECTOR OF CONCILIATION.

THE Secretary of Labor, through the Division of Conciliation, exercised his good offices in connection with 61 labor disputes during May, 1923. These disputes affected a total of 71,394 employees. The following table shows the name and location of the establishment or industry in which the dispute occurred, the nature of the dispute (whether strike or lockout or controversy not having reached strike or lockout stage), the craft or trade concerned, the cause of the dispute, its present status, the terms of settlement, the date of beginning and ending, and the number of workmen directly and indirectly affected.

LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR THROUGH ITS DIVISION OF CONCILIATION, MAY, 1923.

Company or industry and location.	Nature of controversy.	Craft concerned.	Cause of dispute.	Present status.
Jas. Lee & Sons Co., Bridgeport, Pa.	Strike	Textile workers	Asked 20 per cent increase.	Adjusted.
Atlantic Mills, Stottsville, N. Y.	do	do	Asked wage increase.	Do.
Electrical workers, Syracuse, N. Y.	do	Electrical workers.	do	Do.
Ironworkers, Newark, N. J.	do	Ironworkers	Asked $1 per day increase.	Do.
Building trades, laborers, Buffalo, N. Y.	do	Laborers	Asked 75 cents per hour and recognition.	Pending.
Longshoremen, San Pedro and west coast.	Controversy.	Longshoremen	Employment system.	Do.
Plasterers et al., Massillon, Ohio.	Strike	Plasterers	Asked 25 cents per hour increase.	Adjusted.
Mayo Woolen Mills, Millbury, Mass.	do	Weavers	Wages and conditions.	Do.
Teamsters, Cleveland, Ohio	do	Teamsters	Wages, hours, and recognition.	Do.
Carpenters, Los Angeles, Calif.	Controversy.	Carpenters	Asked $1 increase and closed shop.	Do.
Street cars, Erie, Pa.	Threatened strike.	Traction workers.	Asked 30 per cent increase.	Do.
W. D. Byron & Sons, Williamsport, Md.	Strike	Tanners	Asked 10 per cent increase.	Do.
Electrical workers, Charleston, W. Va.	do	Electricians	Asked wage increase.	Pending.
New York Knife Co., Walden, N. Y.	Lockout	Employees	Asked 20 per cent be restored.	Do.
Electrical workers, Cedar Rapids, Iowa.	Strike	Electrical workers.	Rules changed	Adjusted.
Manhasset Manufacturing Co., Putnam, Conn.	do	Textile workers	Asked 7 per cent increase.	Do.
Plumbers, Washington, D. C.	Controversy.	Plumbers	Asked $1.50 per day increase.	Do.
Plumbers, Terre Haute, Ind.	Strike	do	Asked 25 cents per hour increase.	Do.
Terre Haute Manufacturing, Terre Haute, Ind.	do	Molders	Asked increase and recognition.	Do.
Bakers, Washington, D. C.	do	Bakers	Asked increase	Do.
Bakery salesmen, Washington, D. C.	Controversy.	Salesmen	Asked increase in minimum rate.	Do.

LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR THROUGH ITS DIVISION OF CONCILIATION, MAY, 1923—Continued.

Company or industry and location.	Nature of controversy.	Craft concerned.	Cause of dispute.	Present status.
Buttonwood colliery, near Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	Strike.....	Miners.....	Change of powder in use.	Adjusted.
Ladies' garment makers, Worcester, Mass.	.....do.....	Garment makers..	Working conditions.	Do.
Aberfoyle Manufacturing Co., Chester, Pa.	Controversy.	Weavers.....	Asked 10 per cent increase.	Do.
Cigar makers, New York City.....	Threatened strike.	Cigar makers.....	Conditions and wages.	Pending.
10 pottery plants, Crooksville, Ohio.	Strike.....	Potters.....	Asked 75-cent flat rate.	Do.
Building trades, Portland, Oreg.....	Controversy.	Building trades...	Wages and overtime.	Do.
Scott & Co., Boston, Mass.....	Strike.....	Clothing makers...	Wages and discrimination.	Adjusted.
Geo. H. Gilbert Manufacturing Co., Gilbertville, Mass.	.....do.....	Employees.....	Asked 22½ per cent increase.	Do.
Clothing workers, New York City...	.....do.....	Clothing workers..	.....	Pending.
Bush Terminal, New York City.....	Threatened strike.	Railway clerks....	.....	Do.
Potomac Public Service Co., Hagerstown, Md.	Controversy.	Trackmen.....	Asked 20 per cent wage increase.	Adjusted.
Carpet and drapery workers, Chicago, Ill.	Strike.....	Drapery workers..	Asked increase from $1 to $1.25.	Pending.
Atlantic City & Shore R. R., Atlantic City, N. J.	Threatened strike.	Traction workers..	Wages and conditions.	Adjusted.
Street railway, Schenectady, N. Y..	Strike.....	.....do.....	Union recognition and contract.	Pending.
National Pants Co., Brooklyn, N. Y., and Stamford, Conn.	.....do.....	Clothing workers..	44 hours per week, 25 per cent increase and recognition.	Do.
Ford Instrument Co., Long Island, N. Y.	.....do.....	Metal workers.....	Asked 10 per cent increase and 44 hours per week.	Adjusted.
Asbestos workers, Detroit, Mich.....	.....do.....	Asbestos workers..	Asked increase of 19 cents per hour.	Do.
Sayre & Fisher Co., New Brunswick, N. J.	.....do.....	Brickmakers.....	Asked 15 per cent increase, 8 hours, and recognition.	Pending.
Contractors, Kansas City, Mo.....	.....do.....	Building trades...	Asked increase.....	Adjusted
Winchester-Simmons, Walden, N. Y.	.....do.....	Knife makers.....	Asked 20 per cent be restored.	Pending.
Ed Goldman, Boston, Mass.....	.....do.....	Garment makers..	Asked union recognition.	Do.
Golden Grass Co., Boston, Mass.....	.....do.....	Shoemakers.....	.....do.....	Adjusted.
Hod carriers, Charleston, W. Va.....	.....do.....	Hod carriers.....	Asked 15 cents per hour increase (90 cents).	Do.
Building laborers, Philadelphia, Pa..	.....do.....	Building laborers..	Asked 25 cents per hour increase.	Do.
Bricklayers, New York City.....	.....do.....	Bricklayers.....	Asked $12 per day...	Pending.
Painters, New York City.....	Threatened strike.	Painters.....	Asked $1 per day increase.	Adjusted.
Quarry workers, Quincy, Mass.....	Strike.....	Quarrymen.....	Asked 77 cents per hour.	Do.
North Mahanoy mine, Mahanoy City, Pa.	.....do.....	Miners.....	Union dispute.....	Do.
Shoe workers, Boston, Mass.....	.....do.....	Shoemakers.....	Wages, etc.....	Pending.
Marietta Silk Co., Marietta, Pa.....	.....do.....	Weavers.....	Asked 1 cent per yard increase.	Do.
Construction company, Indianapolis, Ind.	Threatened strike.	Ironworkers.....	Nonunion labor employed.	Do.
Lorraine Mill, Westerly, R. I.....	Strike.....	Textile workers...	Reinstatement of 1 employee.	Do.
15 contracting firms, Peoria, Ill.....	.....do.....	Electric workers..	Asked 15 cents per hour increase.	Adjusted.
Melrose Novelty Co., New York City.	.....do.....	Shoemakers.....	44-hour week and wages.	Do.
Machinists, Philadelphia, Pa.....	.....do.....	Machinists.....	Wage scale.....	Pending.
Painters, Peoria, Ill.....	Lockout.....	Painters.....	Conditions.....	Do.
Sterling & Burnside mine, Shamokin, Pa.	Strike.....	Miners.....	.....do.....	Adjusted.
Big Mountain & Henry Clay colliery, Shamokin, Pa.	.....do.....	.....do.....	Union dispute.....	Do.
Glen Brook colliery, Shamokin, Pa..	.....do.....	.....do.....	Conditions.....	Do.
Boyshform Brassiere Co., New York City.	.....do.....	Garment makers..	Discharge of manager.	Do.

LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR THROUGH ITS DIVISION OF CONCILIATION, MAY, 1923—Continued.

Company or industry and location.	Terms of settlement.	Date of—		Workmen affected.	
		Beginning.	Ending.	Directly.	Indirectly.
		1923.	1923.		
Jas. Lee & Sons Co., Bridgeport, Pa.	12½ per cent increase allowed.	Apr. 14	Apr. 21	700	.....
Atlantic Mills, Stottsville, N. Y.	15 per cent increase allowed.	Apr. 10	Apr. 15	.....	.....
Electrical Workers, Syracuse, N. Y.	Increased from $1 to $1.12½.	May 1	May 5	160	4,000
Ironworkers, Newark, N. J.	$1 per day allowed.	Apr. 15	Apr. 20	200	.....
Building trades, laborers, Buffalo, N. Y.	16 contractors settled.	May 1	.....	4,000	1,500
Longshoremen, San Pedro and west coast.	.....	Apr. 25	.....	600	2,000
Plasterers et al., Massillon, Ohio.	Increase granted.	Apr. 30	May 1	16	.....
Mayo Woolen Mills, Millbury, Mass.	10 per cent increase allowed.	(1)	May 2	80	270
Teamsters, Cleveland, Ohio.	5 cents per hour increase.	May 1	May 10	600	2,500
Carpenters, Los Angeles, Calif.	$9 scale; but not paid to all.	Apr. 2	May 1	.....	.....
Street cars, Erie, Pa.	Accepted 5 cents per hour increase.	Apr. 16	May 1	200	.....
W. D. Byron & Sons, Williamsport, Md.	Increase to some of men.	May 7	May 14	100	100
Electrical workers, Charleston, W. Va.	.....	May 1	.....	200	.....
New York Knife Co., Walden, N. Y.	.....	Apr. 1	.....	330	.....
Electrical workers, Cedar Rapids, Iowa.	Local "Adjustment plan" accepted.	May 7	May 12	30	2,000
Manhasset Manufacturing Co., Putnam, Conn.	All refuse conference.	May 9	(1)	279	.....
Plumbers, Washington, D. C.	$1.50 increase allowed.	May 3	May 6	450	.....
Plumbers, Terre Haute, Ind.	15 cents per hour increase allowed.	May 7	May 11	80	.....
Terre Haute Manufacturing, Terre Haute, Ind.	Workers return without change.	May 5	June 4	55	.....
Bakers, Washington, D. C.	10 cents per hour increase; $3.50 per week to helpers.	May 1	May 4	600	.....
Bakery salesmen, Washington, D. C.	Minimum increase, $10 per week.	Mar. 10	Apr. 24	400	.....
Buttonwood colliery, near Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	Miners to choose powder.	May 11	May 16	450	500
Ladies' garment makers, Worcester, Mass.	Returned: settlement satisfactory to both.	May 13	May 26	300	.....
Aberfoyle Manufacturing Co., Chester, Pa.	55-hour week; piecework scale.	Apr. 12	Apr. 22	50	.....
Cigar makers, New York City.	.....	May 1	.....	20	.....
10 pottery plants, Crooksville, Ohio.	.....	May 10	.....	500	.....
Building trades, Portland, Oreg.	.....	Jan. 1	.....	4,000	1,000
Scott & Co., Boston, Mass.	Increase of 10 per cent allowed.	(1)	May 21	95	155
Geo. H. Gilbert Manufacturing Co., Gilbertville, Mass.	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	.....
Clothing workers, New York City.	.....	(1)	.....	(1)	.....
Bush Terminal, New York City.	.....	(1)	.....	300	.....
Potomac Public Service Co., Hagerstown, Md.	3 cents per hour allowed; 9-hour day.	May 14	May 14	20	250
Carpet and drapery workers, Chicago, Ill.	.....	May 1	.....	850	450
Atlantic City & Shore R. R., Atlantic City, N. J.	5 cents per hour increase allowed.	May 1	May 17	200	100
Street railway, Schenectady, N. Y.	.....	May 17	.....	450	600
National Pants Co., Brooklyn, N. Y., and Stamford, Conn.	.....	May 7	.....	145	.....
Ford Instrument Co., Long Island, N. Y.	31 returned; no change.	May 14	May 21	210	13
Asbestos workers, Detroit, Mich.	7 cents per hour increase allowed ($1 per hour).	May 1	May 2	86	.....
Sayre & Fisher Co., New Brunswick, N. J.	Refuse to sign agreement.	May 16	.....	700	.....
Contractors, Kansas City, Mo.	10 cents per hour to hod carriers, etc.	Apr. 1	May —	2,000	5,000
Winchester-Simmons, Walden, N. Y.	.....	May 1	.....	370	.....
Ed Goldman, Boston, Mass.	.....	(1)	.....	60	.....
Golden Grass Co., Boston, Mass.	Union recognized.	May 17	May 21	70	.....
Hod carriers, Charleston, W. Va.	No raise; returned to work.	May 1	May 17	.....	.....
Building laborers, Philadelphia, Pa.	$1 per hour and 8-hour day.	May 8	May 17	400	2,000
Bricklayers, New York City.	.....	May 21	.....	2,000	.....

[1] Not reported.

LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR THROUGH ITS DIVISION OF CONCILIATION, MAY, 1923—Concluded.

Company or industry and location.	Terms of settlement.	Date of—		Workmen affected.	
		Beginning.	Ending.	Directly.	Indirectly.
		1923.	1923.		
Painters, New York City	$1 increase allowed and 5-day week.	May 4	May 19	10,000	.....
Quarry workers, Quincy, Mass	66 cents per hour allowed	May 1	June 2	250	50
North Mahanoy mine, Mahanoy City, Pa.	Agree on colliery locals	May 19	May 23	660	700
Shoe workers, Boston, Mass	.....	(1)	.....	4,500	6,200
Marietta Silk Co., Marietta, Pa	.....	May 7	.....	16	73
Construction company, Indianapolis, Ind.	.....	Apr. 1	.....	20	250
Lorraine Mill, Westerly, R. I	.....	May 1	.....	600	.....
15 contracting firms, Peoria, Ill	Demands granted; 1 year agreement.	May 1	May 10	75	100
Melrose Novelty Co., New York City.	44-hour week and 6 months' contract.	May 17	May 19	20	3
Machinists, Philadelphia, Pa	.....	(1)	.....	(1)	.....
Painters, Peoria, Ill	.....	(1)	.....	(1)	.....
Sterling & Burnside mine, Shamokin, Pa.	Return pending conferences.	May 25	June 4	890	913
Big Mountain & Henry Clay colliery, Shamokin, Pa.	.....do.....	May 25	June 4	675	25
Glen Brook colliery, Shamokin, Pa	Compromise; both make concessions.	May 16	May 31	425	25
Boyshform Brassiere Co, New York City.	Resumed work under manager.	Mar. 10	Apr. 4	130	.....
Total	.....	.....	.....	49,617	30,777

[1] Not reported.

On June 1, 1923, there were 59 strikes before the department for settlement and in addition 15 controversies which had not reached the strike stage. Total number of cases pending, 74.

COOPERATION.

Effect of Strikes on Cooperative Stores.

IN AN article in the May, 1923, issue of Cooperation (New York), Mr. T. D. Stiles, president of the Penn Central Cooperative Association and cooperative organizer for the United Mine Workers of America, discusses the effect of strikes on cooperative stores. As the observations are the result of a good many years of practical experience both in the labor and in the cooperative world, they should be of interest.

While the way in which "labor organizations can foster cooperatives, and the cooperatives can, when the need arises, support the labor union, has been beautifully worked out theoretically," it is pointed out that in the application of the theory many unexpected practical problems arise. Cooperative stores are generally grocery stores, and are subject to the same considerable business hazards as private grocery stores. In addition, cooperative stores, especially those fostered or partly financed by labor organizations, are subject to the special hazard involved in industrial strikes. During the time of strike, the success of the store becomes a secondary consideration to the winning of the strike. The store is expected to extend assistance—usually in the form of credit—to its members, often regardless of its real ability to do so.

The experience of the miners' cooperative associations in central Pennsylvania is cited and several concrete instances are given, among them the following account of the cooperative society at Clarence, Pa.:

> The store was very prosperous from the beginning. About a year after the store was opened a local strike was called. The United Mine Workers of America gave relief to the strikers. All of this relief went through the cooperative store. The store continued to prosper in a degree that was almost unbelievable. Within three years they had returned to their members in dividends over $7,000, which was about the amount of their capital investment. In addition to this, they had paid for a building $7,500. They had a surplus in the bank of $10,000. We know of no cooperative store in America that has been able to equal this record. Then a general strike was called, which caused the United Mine Workers to withdraw the membership relief from Clarence. Then the store began to carry its own relief. About 200 members needed assistance. Probably the fact that they had a large surplus caused them to distribute relief rather freely. But soon their surplus was gone and they found themselves in financial difficulties. The store is still in operation and the strike is also still on; and at the present time it seems to be a race between the strike and the cooperative as to which shall end first. The strikers are at present receiving a small amount of relief, but the store has lost all the advantages gained by its past successes.

The writer is of the opinion that general strikes do not have so destructive an effect upon cooperative societies as do local strikes, for the reasons that local strikes are generally of longer duration than general strikes, and that during a general strike "there is more interest and enthusiasm and more leniency on the part of creditors."

At the time of the general strike of miners in 1922, however, there was and had been a general slackness of work in both mining and other industries in central Pennsylvania. The cooperative societies had already begun to suffer from this business depression when the strike was called and "few of the members were in condition to stand a long drawn out strike such as this proved to be." Almost immediately the stores were called upon for help and practically all of them granted it, some of them carrying their assistance even to the point of danger to the stability of the society. The strike was followed by another period of little employment, "a condition which still continues," but it is pointed out that "the slightest improvement" in employment conditions would make secure the future of the miners' cooperative associations.

As to the aid given by cooperative societies during the general strike of 1922, Mr. Stiles states:

> The amount of actual aid given to strikers during this strike will never be known. It was extended in so many different ways that it is impossible to trace it. Sometimes it was given in the form of donations; generally in the form of extended credit. Owing to the lack of work after the strike, few of the members were able to pay what they owed the store. Most of the stores had gone in debt for the goods which they gave to their members on credit. Of course a part of the bills due these stores will never be paid, but the larger percentage of them will be paid some time in the future.

The writer asks three questions and then proceeds to answer them n the light of his experience, as follows:

> First. Does it pay labor organizations to establish cooperatives as an aid to strikes? It does. It gives them some elementary training in business which is of value to them in every department of the labor movement. It enables them to lay up a stock of merchandise which if necessity requires can be used in support of the strike.
>
> Second. Is assistance from labor organizations a desirable thing for cooperatives? From a strictly business viewpoint, no. The stores would be better able to protect themselves during strikes if they had no connection with the labor movement. If considered as a part of the general education of labor, decidedly yes. It shows to labor the necessity for entering into business to protect their interests. It diffuses more or less throughout the entire membership knowledge of the need of business education. This knowledge can and will naturally mold itself into cooperative sentiment. So in the end, losses by cooperatives in strikes, money spent by labor unions in the establishing of cooperative education is merely money invested in the labor movement with educational gains that guarantee future financial dividends.
>
> Third. Is it a wise policy for labor unions to confine membership in cooperatives to their own members? Decidedly no. A true cooperative movement is a community institution, and though at first glance it might look philanthropic on the part of a labor union to use its funds for educating the public in cooperation, I know of no better medium of carrying the message of labor to farmers, professional men, and workers of the unorganized crafts. And often so-called outsiders bring more than sufficient help and knowledge into the movement than will recompense the labor union for its efforts. This is particularly true during strikes. The close association in the cooperative movement of union men with others form contacts which are of immeasurable value to both parties.

The author feels that the labor movement and the cooperative movement are inseparable. He regards the cooperative societies "in their present state" as more of an educational than a business institution. "They make an elementary school of economics in which all who eat are obliged to study," and as such entitled to the support and encouragement of the labor movement.

Problems of Cooperative Marketing.

A LIST of 14 problems confronting farmers' marketing associations has been prepared by Dr. J. D. Black, of the College of Agriculture, University of Minnesota, according to the May 9, 1923, issue of Marketing Activities. These problems, which it was found that cooperative associations either were not solving correctly or were giving no study at all, are as follows:

1. Controlling quality—easily the most important function of a cooperative. Some progress being made, but slow. More power needed to enforce specifications.
2. Standardizing production—getting farmers to produce the same type of product and the same variety. More progress being made in this line, but not rapidly enough.
3. Adjusting production to consumption—getting farmers to raise the kinds of produce the market wants.
4. Stabilizing production—getting farmers to produce the quantities of each product the market wants. Smoothing out the ups and downs of the production cycle.
5. Making consumption fit production—by advertising and sales campaigns. Getting consumers to absorb large as well as small crops.
6. Regulating the flow of produce to market—of importance with potatoes and several other types of produce. Easily overemphasized. Farmers sometimes lose by selling in the fall, sometimes by holding till spring.
7. Distributing the product—seeing that it goes to the market that needs it most.
8. Inspecting produce en route or at destination.
9. Handling claims.
10. Selling—making connections with actual buyers in place of consigning to commission merchants. Important with some commodities.
11. Financing marketing operations—only for moving certain commodities do local cooperatives at present borrow funds as cheaply as they could.
12. Bargaining—local cooperatives are not at present on equal bargaining terms with buyers of some commodities; and where this is the case, they can get better prices by collective bargaining. Very easy to overemphasize.
13. Improving accounting and business practices—progress altogether too slow.
14. Research in marketing methods—such as has been done by the raisin growers and others.

Farmers' Cooperative Marketing in South Carolina in 1922.

COOPERATIVE marketing is of comparatively recent development in South Carolina, tobacco and cotton being the commodities handled. The year book and nineteenth annual report (1922) of the commissioner of agriculture, commerce, and industries of South Carolina commends to the farmers of the State this form of marketing and points out what has already been accomplished. The report states that the South Carolina Cotton Growers' Cooperative Marketing Association has 10,400 members. These members have contracted to market their cotton only through the association, and an aggregate of 460,000 bales has been "signed up."

In the marketing of tobacco even more has been done. A tri-State marketing organization, the Tobacco Growers' Cooperative Association of Virginia and the Carolinas, has been formed, constituting what the report calls "the greatest tobacco-selling organization in the world." In 1922 this association handled "over half of the aggregate tonnage of tobacco produced" in the three States in which it operates. In South Carolina, of 42,586,756 pounds produced, 15,356,949, 36.1 per cent, was sold cooperatively.

One of its first accomplishments in South Carolina was to have the farmer assort and bundle his tobacco before offering it for sale. By putting his product in a more

presentable shape, he has not only improved the price but has brought about more orderly marketing of the entire crop.

For the first time in the history of the bright tobacco industry, an intelligent system of standardized grading has been put into effect. The grading is done at the various receiving stations by the member-growers' own expert graders, enabling the member to know the exact grade of his tobacco. In the three States the association has 220 of these receiving and grading warehouses. Tobacco being a semiperishable product until redried, the leaf department has prepared to handle and redry, if necessary, 3,000,000 pounds of tobacco daily, running on normal time.

The commissioner states that while the 1922 crop of tobacco was practically as large as that of 1921 and the quality was no better, the price received by the farmer was nearly 100 per cent higher. This, he states, is "the result of cooperation."

Cooperation in Foreign Countries.

Canada (Ontario).[1]

ANNOUNCEMENT is made in the Canadian Cooperator, Brantford, Ontario, of January, 1923, that the chain stores, organized and operated by the United Farmers' Cooperative Co. at Toronto and other Canadian points, are to be abandoned by the company, which has become convinced that cooperation can not be practiced successfully by chain-store methods. The company began operations in 1914, at which time "the leaders of the movement only had in view the opening of a brokerage or order-receiving office in Toronto for carload shipments to farmers' clubs and individual farmers throughout the Province." The chain stores were opened somewhat later and developed an immense business but the results were unsatisfactory. This was attributed by the director to weakness in management. The financial loss for 1921 amounted to $300,000, and for 1922 to $56,222. The stores will be closed or disposed of by sale.

Esthonia.[2]

THE first cooperative dairy in Esthonia was started in 1898 but the first cooperative credit society and consumers' society were not established until 1902. The greatest development in the cooperative movement has taken place since the war.

The growth of the cooperative movement is a tangible proof of the economic recovery of Esthonia since the war, and is, at the same time, one of the causes of that recovery. It is largely due to the complete change in political conditions and in the legislation of the country. Cooperative societies have been able to develop freely only since the coming into force in Esthonia of the act of March 20, 1917, of the provisional Russian Government. That act removed the obstacles placed in the way of the creation of new cooperative societies by the Czarist Government and societies were merely required to deposit copies of their rules with the competent authorities. An important innovation was the right, which had previously been refused, to form federations of cooperative societies and to establish joint organizations for economic or other purposes.

[1] Quoted from Agricultural Cooperation, Washington, D. C., May 7, 1923, p. 5.
[2] International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, Apr. 13, 1923, pp. 41-45.

There are two wholesale societies, the Agricultural Wholesale Society (*Pöllumajandusline Keskühisus*) "Estonia," and the Esthonian Cooperative Wholesale Society (the "E. T. K."). The former is the oldest central cooperative society in Esthonia. Its membership at first consisted exclusively of dairy societies, but it gradually extended its field to include the marketing of agricultural products, and at the same time began to accept individuals as well as societies as members. On September 1, 1922, its membership included 171 societies and 183 individuals; its sales for the first eight months of the year amounted to 351,000,000 Esthonian marks ($67,743,000, par). The society owns a model farm, a sausage factory, and a dry-salting factory. It exports a considerable quantity of butter, cheese, eggs, bacon, and cereals, especially to Russia, England, and Sweden.

The E. T. K., which was the first central organization to be formed after the war, is a joint consumers' and agricultural wholesale society.

The following table shows the development of the E. T. K. and its affiliated societies since 1917:

DEVELOPMENT OF E. T. K. AND AFFILIATED SOCIETIES, 1917 TO 1922.

[Ruble at par=51.46 cents; Esthonian mark at par=19.3 cents.]

Year.	Number of affiliated societies.	Membership of affiliated societies.	Business of E. T. K.	Business of affiliated societies.
			Rubles.	*Rubles.*
1917	55	13,549	1,862,000	8,416,000
			Marks.	*Marks.*
1918	78	20,719	4,269,000	18,804,000
1919	156	63,258	34,418,000	81,747,000
1920	226	94,331	210,971,000	476,669,000
1921	249	98,340	863,708,600	1,250,000,000
1922	254	[1] 100,000	[1] 1,526,000,000	.....

[1] Approximate figure.

The proportion of the purchases of the affiliated societies obtained from the E. T. K. has increased from 5.1 per cent in 1917 to 41.17 per cent in 1921. In 1921, however, only 54.55 per cent of the sales of the E. T. K. were made to members. This is said to be due to the fact that a large proportion of the turnover of the E. T. K. is represented by transactions with foreign countries. Of the total turnover of 863,708,600 marks ($166,695,760, par) in 1921, about 264,000,000 marks ($50,952,000, par) represented exports. The chief country of exportation is Russia (84 per cent of the total). Next in order come Great Britain, Germany, Lithuania, and Finland. The chief exports of the E. T. K. are rye seed (to Russia) and flax (to Great Britain and Germany).

Influenced by the geographical situation of Esthonia as a transit country and by its extensive transactions with various countries, the E. T. K., at the beginning of 1922, set up a special transport department which undertakes the loading and unloading of ships, the discharge of customs formalities, the insurance of goods and their transport through the country. The E. T. K. has begun to set up productive undertakings of its own, and already possesses five fish-curing factories, a sawmill, and a potato-drying factory with a distillery.

Finland.[3]

DURING 1922 the wholesale society of the Central Cooperative Union of Finland, the O. T. K., had sales amounting to 318,401,410 Finnish marks ($61,451,472, par), exceeding those of the previous year by 124,507,776 Finnish marks ($24,030,001, par). In 1922, 113 retail societies, with a combined membership of 160,846, were affiliated to the wholesale, as compared with 116 societies, with a membership of 157,705, in 1921. The sales of the affiliated societies for 1922 amounted to 735,700,000 Finnish marks ($141,990,100, par).

France.

THE 1922 report [4] of the French National Federation of Consumers' Cooperative Societies contains statistics of the consumers' movement in France in 1920. The table following shows the development of the movement in the period 1913 to 1920:

DEVELOPMENT OF CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN FRANCE, 1913 TO 1920.

[Franc at par=19.3 cents.]

Year.	Total number of societies.	Membership.		Business.	
		Number of societies reporting.	Number of members.	Number of societies reporting.	Amount.
Societies affiliated to national federation:					*Francs.*
1913[1]	894	806	254,251	806	108,001,827
1918	.....	1,165	749,539	1,263	438,367,083
1920	2,291	1,733	1,360,700	1,801	1,153,697,608
Societies not affiliated to national federation:					
1913[1]	2,367	2,174	610,771	2,174	209,571,063
1918	.....	1,197	572,023	1,081	203,520,238
1920	2,499	2,310	1,137,679	2,177	685,841,115
Total:					
1913[1]	3,261	2,980	865,022	2,980	317,572,890
1918	.....	2,362	1,321,562	2,344	641,887,321
1920	4,790	4,043	[2]2,498,449	3,978	1,839,538,723

[1] Data from Fédération Nationale des Coopératives de Consommation, Annuaire, 1920, p. 151.
[2] This total is not the correct sum of the items but is as given in the report.

The average number of members per society increased from 297 in 1913 to 628 in 1920, while the average sales per society increased from 120,197 francs ($23,198, par) to 477,813 francs ($92,218, par).

The Cooperative Wholesale Society (*Magasin de Gros*) of the Federation had sales in 1921 amounting to 152,600,513 francs ($29,451,899, par). Of this sum 24,280,851 francs ($4,686,204, par) were for goods manufactured in its own productive departments. Some 1,597 retail societies made their purchases through the wholesale society in 1921.

Previous to 1922 the wholesale society had through its banking department performed the functions of a central cooperative bank. It was thought, however, that these functions could better be done

[3] Data on which this section is based are from Schweiz. Konsum-verein, Basel, Apr. 7, 1923, p. 195.
[4] Fédération Nationale des Coopératives de Consommation. Annuaire de la Coopération, 1922. Paris, 1922.

through a separate organization, and for this reason the Bank of the Cooperative Societies of France was formed early in 1922. At the time when the report under review was written the bank had been in existence only two months and so no figures of operation could be given.

Agricultural Credit.

The April 25, 1923, issue of L'Association Ouvrière (Paris) contains a summary of a report on mutual agricultural credit banks, recently made by the French Ministry of Agriculture. Some of the statistics given are shown below:

STATISTICS OF MUTUAL AGRICULTURAL CREDIT BANKS, DEC. 31, 1919 AND 1921.

Item.	Dec. 31—	
	1919	1921
Number of regional banks		99
Number of affiliated local banks		5,000
Number of members		250,000
Number of agricultural cooperative societies granted loans	479	730
	Francs.[1]	*Francs.*[1]
Amount of loans granted to agricultural cooperative societies	17,000,000	38,000,000
Share capital	27,000,000	32,000,000
Reserves	20,500,000	26,000,000
Deposits	17,000,000	33,500,000
Grants received from national office of agricultural credit for—		
Short-term loans	67,500,000	75,000,000
Advances for purchase of live stock, agricultural supplies, etc		9,600,000
Loans granted on—		
Short-term notes		280,000,000
Long-term notes	14,000,000	42,500,000

[1] Franc at par = 19.3 cents.

Germany.

THE April 21, 1923, issue of Konsumgenossenschaftliche Rundschau (Hamburg) contains summary figures showing the 1922 operations of members of the Central Union of German Consumers' Cooperative Societies (*Zentralverband deutscher Konsumvereine*). The following statement shows certain of the items:

OPERATIONS OF MEMBERS OF CENTRAL UNION OF GERMAN CONSUMERS' COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES, 1921 AND 1922.

Item.	1921	1922
Number of affiliated societies	1,337	1,350
Membership of reporting societies	2,834,000	3,162,000
	Marks.	*Marks.*
Sales for year	5,183,000,000	13,889,000,000
Sales on commission	14,500,000	35,000,000
Output of productive departments	737,000,000	2,265,000,000
Reserve	41,000,000	73,000,000
Special reserves	42,000,000	110,000,000
Savings deposits	567,000,000	942,000,000
Share capital	150,000,000	348,000,000

The membership of affiliated societies is distributed, according to occupation, as follows:

	Per cent.
Workers in industrial establishments	66.64
Persons without definite occupations	12.96
Members of professions and State and municipal employees	8.23
Small tradesmen	6.04
Independent farmers	3.11
Agricultural workers	3.02

The report points out the need of a larger share capital. At present, deposits of members form the greater part of the "working capital" of the German cooperative movement, but since these are subject to withdrawal at short notice there is always an element of danger in too great dependence upon this source of capital.

The sales of the wholesale society of the union (the G. E. G.) for the year 1922 amounted to 35,708,000 marks.

A new phase of cooperative development is noted in the April, 1923, issue of Cooperation (New York). According to the account three large towns in northwestern Germany have recently joined the local cooperative consumers' society. These towns are Geestemunde, Lehe, and Rustringen.

Geestemunde and Lehe have both become members of the distributive and cooperative banking society "Unterweser." The municipality of Lehe has had its insurance policies amounting to 250,000,000 marks transferred to the insurance department of the cooperative society. The Geestemunde municipal authorities are also negotiating with the cooperative society to take over insurance policies of a very considerable amount. The town of Rustringen, in becoming a member of the Rustringen Distributive Cooperative Society, has contributed 20,000 marks to the society's capital. The latter municipality has given as the reason for its joining the cooperative society the fact that it will be able to procure supplies cheaper through its membership in the cooperative.

A number of other towns are reported to have voted as political organizations to join their local cooperative societies.

Agricultural Cooperation.

According to the March, 1923, issue of the International Cooperative Bulletin (p. 67), the agricultural cooperative movement in Germany made considerable progress in 1922. The following table shows the increase in the societies of each type from 1920 to 1923:

NUMBER OF AGRICULTURAL COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES OF EACH TYPE, 1920 TO 1923.

Type of society.	1920	1921	1922	1923
Central societies	94	87	94	97
Savings and loan banks	18,576	18,576	19,030	19,418
Supply and sale societies	3,613	3,911	4,249	4,600
Cooperative dairies	3,517	3,313	3,367	3,410
Other societies	5,902	6,651	8,271	9,692
Total	31,702	32,538	35,011	37,217

Great Britain.

STATISTICS of cooperative housing societies, compiled by the chief registrar of friendly societies, are published in the April, 1923, issue of the Ministry of Labor Gazette (pp. 123, 124). Two

main groups of cooperative housing societies are dealt with: "Tenancy" societies, which rent houses but retain the ownership of them; and "house purchase" societies, which acquire houses for purchase by installments by their members.

The following table shows the statistics of operation of these societies from 1917 to 1921. Figures for 1921 relate to Great Britain only. Those for the earlier years include Ireland also; it is stated, however, that the figures for Ireland are "almost negligible."

ACTIVITIES OF COOPERATIVE HOUSING SOCIETIES IN GREAT BRITAIN, BY TYPE OF SOCIETY, 1917 TO 1921.

[£ at par=$4.8665.]

Type of society and year.	Number of societies.	Number of members.	Share capital.	Loans.	Reserve.	Rents receivable.	Profit before deduction of interest on capital.	Per cent of profit on share capital.
Tenancy societies:								
1917	105	7,465	£467,444	£3,066,365	£29,001	£243,302	£17,691	3.8
1918	103	7,413	470,762	3,059,707	41,718	252,369	17,451	3.7
1919	131	7,959	473,115	3,270,132	42,705	258,804	7,186	1.5
1920	225	9,730	548,118	5,432,327	24,919	332,406	[1] 6,648	[1] 1.2
1921	235	10,927	632,830	6,651,834	82,768	431,283	31,529	5.0
House-purchase societies:								
1917	5	834	41,797	68,433	1,447	.....	2,012	4.8
1918	6	909	45,884	89,325	2,317	.....	2,066	4.5
1919	13	1,085	55,342	102,751	4,118	.....	3,397	6.1
1920	23	1,306	67,266	148,004	4,159	.....	931	1.4
1921	29	1,646	73,057	207,632	[2] 18,347	.....	[1] 20,062	[1] 27.5

[1] Loss. [2] Deficit.

The report states that these societies rarely return the profits to tenants as dividends on rents paid. Any surplus available for dividends is generally added to a fund out of which is defrayed the cost of repairs for which the tenants are liable.

The aggregate value, at cost, of land and buildings owned by the tenancy societies amounted to £7,481,000 ($36,406,287, par), and of the buildings unsold by the house-purchase societies to £231,588 ($1,127,023, par).

India.

THE following table, compiled from the reports of the respective registrars, shows the operations of the various types of cooperative societies in certain Provinces of India in 1921–22:

OPERATIONS OF COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN CERTAIN PARTS OF INDIA IN 1921–22, BY PROVINCE AND TYPE OF SOCIETY.[1]

Province and type of society.	Number of societies.	Number of members.	Paid-in share capital.	Reserve fund.	Working capital.	Profit for year.
Ajmer-Merwara.			*Rupees.*	*Rupees.*	*Rupees.*	*Rupees.*
Central banks	7	[2] 639	242,780	131,733	2,023,605	48,005
Agricultural societies:						
Credit societies	450	9,984	413,304	196,500	2,013,372	83,935
Production societies	9	111	774	200	10,454	284
Production and sale societies	1	97	113	.....	1,315	54
Total	460	10,192	414,191	196,700	2,025,141	84,273
Nonagricultural societies:						
Credit societies	27	716	37,243	1,208	167,131	[3] 18,854
Purchase and sale societies	16	3,372	45,028	2,989	98,906	4,116
Total	43	[4] 4,088	82,271	4,197	266,037	[3] 14,738
Grand total	510	[4] 14,280	739,242	332,630	4,314,783	117,540
Assam.						
Central banks	18	[2] 346	106,649	44,100	670,848	15,347
Agricultural societies	555	24,579	10,597	192,138	707,211	37,662
Nonagricultural societies:						
Credit societies	25	3,726	117,278	37,414	530,851	20,633
Purchase, and purchase and sale societies	32	3,643	56,945	10,835	131,689	6,027
Total	57	[4] 7,369	174,223	48,249	662,540	26,660
Grand total	630	[4] 31,948	291,469	284,487	2,040,599	79,669
Bihar and Orissa.						
Central banks	46	[2] 4,031	792,836	347,342	8,612,259	189,130
Agricultural credit societies	3,769	97,390	154,737	794,982	6,259,179	171,713
Purchase and sale societies	7	170	1,083	38	2,956	296
Production and sale societies	26	326	3,252	1,288	22,881	[3] 4,623
Total	3,848	[4] 97,886	951,908	1,143,650	14,897,275	356,516
Coorg.						
Central banks	1	[2] 48	4,440	.....	13,940	39
Agricultural credit societies	132	5,988	88,076	72,585	215,908	16,822
Nonagricultural societies:						
Credit societies	10	1,031	26,775	1,074	36,495	1,599
Purchase, and purchase and sale societies	1	131	779	291	2,194	284
Total	11	1,162	27,554	1,365	38,689	1,883
Cattle insurance societies	10	220	.....	.....	.....	.....
Grand total	154	[4] 7,370	120,070	73,950	268,537	18,744
Madras.						
Central banks	242	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Agricultural credit societies	6,206	461,002	7,986,000	2,688,000	60,111,000	.....
Nonagricultural credit societies	694					

[1] Compiled from Ajmer-Merwara, Registrar of cooperative societies, Report on the working of the cooperative societies in the district of Ajmer-Merwara for the year ending June 30, 1922; Assam, Registrar of cooperative societies, Report on the working of the cooperative societies in Assam for the year ending on Mar. 31, 1922; Bihar and Orissa, Registrar of cooperative societies, Report on the working of the cooperative societies in Bihar and Orissa for the year 1921–22; Coorg, Registrar of cooperative societies, Report on the working of the cooperative societies in Coorg for the year ending June 30, 1922; and Leaflet on the progress of the cooperative movement in the Madras Presidency, 1923.

Owing to the constantly changing value of the rupee no attempt is made to give the equivalent in United States money. The value of the rupee, according to the latest Treasury circular, is a little less than 23 cents.

[2] Number of member societies.

[3] Loss.

[4] Including only members of primary or local societies.

In the table following, compiled from a report of the Indian Department of Statistics,[a] is shown corresponding information for all of India for the year 1920–21:

STATISTICS OF COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN INDIA IN 1920-21, BY PROVINCE AND TYPE OF SOCIETY.

Province and type of society.	Number of societies.	Number of members.	Paid-in share capital.	Reserve fund.	Profit for year.
			Rupees.	*Rupees.*	*Rupees.*
Madras:					
Central societies [1]	33	[2] 7,593	2,360,058	442,111	291,257
Supervising unions [3]	177	[2] 4,410	(4)	(4)	(4)
Agricultural societies [5]	5,274	280,299	1,937,495	971,178	[6] 90,354
Nonagricultural societies	803	114,985	2,189,177	424,107	188,964
Total	6,287	[7] 395,284	6,486,730	1,837,396	389,867
Bombay:					
Central societies [1]	18	[2] 6,539	1,453,659	282,621	143,170
Supervising unions [3]	66	[2] 409	(4)	(4)	(4)
Agricultural societies [5]	2,387	179,570	275,523	998,142	245,388
Nonagricultural societies	485	86,059	2,888,452	496,139	305,609
Total	2,956	[7] 265,629	4,617,634	1,776,902	694,167
Bengal:					
Central societies [1]	72	[2] 9,898	1,856,382	594,578	286,852
Supervising unions [3]	6	[2] 186	(4)	(4)	(4)
Agricultural societies [5]	5,850	171,833	382,208	1,718,739	498,208
Nonagricultural societies	438	60,168	1,989,529	324,054	193,816
Total	6,366	[7] 232,001	4,228,119	2,637,371	978,876
Bihar and Orissa:					
Central societies [1]	42	[2] 5,549	683,122	292,604	97,677
Supervising unions [3]	80	[2] 3,481	(4)	(4)	(4)
Agricultural societies [5]	3,247	95,112	[8] 98,849	677,286	265,861
Nonagricultural societies	211	12,402	275,140	57,446	47,395
Total	3,580	[7] 107,514	1,057,111	1,027,336	410,933
United Provinces:					
Central societies [1]	68	[2] 8,648	1,378,595	790,996	280,782
Supervising unions [3]	10	[2] 144	(4)	(4)	(4)
Agricultural societies [5]	4,223	102,051	1,197,243	985,819	175,460
Nonagricultural societies	192	8,569	198,143	53,744	23,306
Total	4,493	[7] 110,620	2,773,981	1,830,559	479,548
Punjab:					
Central societies [1]	98	[2] 8,963	1,331,321	501,855	258,728
Supervising unions [3]	1	[2] 13	(4)	(4)	(4)
Agricultural societies [5]	8,051	214,940	5,308,029	5,197,345	1,039,693
Nonagricultural societies	303	15,371	312,787	99,331	23,141
Total	8,453	[7] 230,311	6,952,137	5,798,531	1,321,562
Burma:					
Central societies [1]	12	[2] 5,339	1,181,775	409,560	40,568
Supervising unions [3]	492	[2] 4,332	(4)	(4)	(4)
Agricultural societies [5]	4,193	102,343	2,370,141	2,215,334	421,174
Nonagricultural societies	191	22,975	1,971,298	217,442	242,510
Total	4,888	[7] 125,318	5,523,214	2,842,336	704,252
Central Provinces and Berar:					
Central societies [1]	35	[2] 81,878	2,428,282	627,488	421,548
Supervising unions [3]	308	[2] 6,084	(4)	(4)	(4)
Agricultural societies [5]	4,569	74,605	[9] 15,728	968,681	230,546
Nonagricultural societies	99	5,033	204,755	17,691	14,147
Total	5,011	[7] 79,638	2,648,765	1,613,860	666,241

[1] Including provincial and central banks and banking unions.
[2] Number of affiliated societies.
[3] Including reinsurance societies.
[4] Not reported.
[5] Including cattle insurance societies.
[6] Loss.
[7] Including members of primary or local societies only.
[8] Not including over 400 societies which did not report as to paid-in share capital.
[9] Including 13 societies only.

[a] India. Department of statistics. Statements showing progress of the cooperative movement in India during the year 1920-21. Calcutta, 1922. No. 1640.

STATISTICS OF COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES IN INDIA IN 1920–21, BY PROVINCE AND TYPE OF SOCIETY—Concluded.

Province and type of society.	Number of societies.	Number of members.	Paid-in share capital.	Reserve fund.	Profit for year.
			Rupees.	*Rupees.*	*Rupees.*
Assam:					
Central societies [1]	15	[2] 1,361	83,574	31,163	13,579
Supervising unions [3]	2	[2] 37	[4]	[4]	[4]
Agricultural societies [5]	494	21,638	[10] 6,171	168,567	34,498
Nonagricultural societies	49	6,446	146,413	31,047	26,849
Total	560	[7] 28,084	236,158	230,777	74,926
Coorg:					
Agricultural societies [5]	133	5,856	81,328	59,489	14,116
Nonagricultural societies	9	709	17,687	832	836
Total	142	6,565	99,015	60,321	14,952
Ajmer-Merwara:					
Central societies [1]	6	[2] 1,442	240,504	99,833	47,563
Supervising unions [3]	1	[2] 89	[4]	[4]	[4]
Agricultural societies [5]	481	12,102	393,459	182,899	80,236
Nonagricultural societies	34	5,194	69,902	2,480	[6] 18,073
Total	522	[7] 17,296	703,865	285,212	127,799
Hyderabad Administered Area: Nonagricultural societies	5	205	19,026	334	1,280
Delhi:					
Central societies [1]	1	[2] 54	7,950	.....	[6] 168
Agricultural societies [5]	61	1,019	1,767	27	739
Nonagricultural societies	41	992	3,736	263	[6] 134
Total	103	[7] 2,011	13,453	290	437
Total, British India:					
Central societies [1]	400	[2] 137,264	13,005,222	[11] 4,072,814	[11] 1,882,056
Supervising unions [3]	1,143	[2] 19,185	[4]	[4]	[4]
Agricultural societies [5]	38,983	1,261,368	12,067,941	14,143,506	[11] 2,915,565
Nonagricultural societies	2,860	339,108	10,286,045	1,724,910	[11] 1,049,646
Total	43,366	[7] 1,600,476	35,359,208	19,941,230	5,847,267
Mysore:					
Central societies [1]	19	[2] 2,364	475,996	102,335	69,989
Agricultural societies [5]	1,225	49,249	1,094,761	227,184	106,932
Nonagricultural societies	256	40,508	1,864,065	363,888	213,427
Total	1,500	[7] 89,757	3,434,822	693,407	390,348
Baroda:					
Central societies [1]	4	[2] 658	99,850	19,016	12,167
Agricultural societies [5]	461	13,049	44,381	239,665	22,404
Nonagricultural societies	44	3,883	40,547	18,906	2,196
Total	509	[7] 16,932	184,778	277,587	36,767
Hyderabad:					
Central societies [1]	11	[2] 2,100	628,842	77,139	99,027
Agricultural societies [5]	1,264	28,279	524,446	435,944	159,850
Nonagricultural societies	162	7,014	363,963	23,002	41,338
Total	1,437	[7] 35,293	1,517,251	536,085	300,215
Bhopal:					
Central societies [1]	15	[2] 1,102	29,040	2,718	10,369
Supervising unions [3]	7	[2] 137	[4]	[4]	[4]
Agricultural societies [5]	669	10,446	.....	15,337	21,193
Total	691	[7] 10,446	29,040	18,055	31,562
Total, Indian States:					
Central societies [1]	49	[2] 6,224	1,233,728	201,208	191,552
Supervising unions [3]	7	[2] 137	[4]	[4]	[4]
Agricultural societies [5]	3,619	101,023	1,663,588	918,130	310,379
Nonagricultural societies	462	51,405	2,208,575	405,796	256,961
Total	4,137	[7] 152,428	5,165,891	1,525,134	758,892
Grand total:					
Central societies [1]	449	[2] 143,488	14,238,950	4,274,022	2,073,608
Supervising unions [3]	1,150	[2] 19,322	[4]	[4]	[4]
Agricultural societies [5]	42,582	1,362,391	13,731,529	15,061,636	3,225,944
Nonagricultural societies	3,322	390,513	12,554,620	2,130,706	1,306,607
Total	47,503	[7] 1,752,904	40,525,099	21,466,364	6,606,159

[1] Including provincial and central banks and banking unions.
[2] Number of affiliated societies.
[3] Including reinsurance societies.
[4] Not reported.
[5] Including cattle insurance societies.
[6] Loss.
[7] Including members of primary or local societies only.
[10] Including 225 societies only.
[11] This is not the correct sum of the items shown but is as given in the report.

The table following shows the development of the cooperative movement in proportion to the population:

NUMBER OF COOPERATIVE SOCIETIES AND THEIR MEMBERS IN INDIA, PER 1,000 INHABITANTS, BY PROVINCES, 1920–21.

Province.	Rate per 1,000 inhabitants.		Province.	Rate per 1,000 inhabitants.	
	Number of societies.	Number of members.		Number of societies.	Number of members.
Madras	0.149	9.3	Hyderabad Administered Area	0.050	1.4
Bombay	.153	13.7	Delhi	.206	4.1
Bengal	.136	5.0	Total, British India	.179	6.6
Bihar and Orissa	.105	3.2	Mysore	.250	15.0
United Provinces	.099	2.4	Baroda	.242	8.0
Punjab	.408	11.1	Hyderabad	.115	2.8
Burma	.418	10.7	Bhopal	.987	15.1
Central Provinces and Berar	.361	5.7	Total, Indian States	.194	7.2
Assam	.074	3.7	Grand total	.180	6.6
Coorg	.710	40.0			
Ajmer-Merwara	1.044	34.9			

Netherlands.[6]

DURING 1922, De Handelskamer, the Dutch Cooperative Wholesale Society, had sales amounting to 11,893,808 florins ($4,781,311, par), a decrease of 16.3 per cent as compared with those of 1921. The following statement shows the sales of the wholesale society since 1913–14:

	Florins.
1913–14	4,561,444
1915	6,236,095
1916	8,977,305
1917	10,000,298
1918	7,775,336
1919	11,126,477
1920	14,612,665
1921	14,215,539
1922	11,893,808

Spain.

AN ACCOUNT contained in the 1923 annual [7] of the French National Federation of Consumers' Cooperative Societies (pp. 88, 89) states that in the north of Spain there is a "young and active" cooperative movement organized by the Union of Cooperative Societies of the North of Spain. At the end of 1920 the union had in affiliation 35 societies, having 14,253 members and an annual business of 16,042,266 pesetas ($3,096,157, par). The wholesale department of the union had during the same year a business of 5,089,460 pesetas ($982,266, par).

At the first congress of Spanish cooperative societies, held at Madrid in May, 1921, delegates were present from 300 societies. The congress authorized the organization of a national federation of workers' cooperative societies based upon regional, provincial, and local federations.

[6] Data are from Fédération Nationale des Coopératives de Consommation, Annuaire, 1922, Paris, 1922, p. 99; and International Cooperative Bulletin, June, 1923, p. 141.

[7] Fédération National des Coopératives de Consommation. Annuaire de la Coopération, 1922. Paris, 1922.

Switzerland.

THE 1922 report[8] of the Swiss Union of Consumers' Cooperative Societies (the V. S. K.) states that the unfortunate industrial and economic conditions prevalent in Switzerland in 1921 continued throughout 1922. Difficulties with exchange rates, especially in Germany, and the import duties levied by surrounding countries had their effect on Swiss industries working for export. Industries manufacturing for domestic consumption were in a better situation, but agriculture felt severely the low prices of live stock and agricultural produce. These conditions were reflected in the condition of the cooperative movement.

Certain details of operation of the union for 1921 and 1922 are shown below:

STATISTICS OF OPERATION OF V. S. K., 1921 AND 1922.

[Franc at par=19.3 cents.]

	1921	1922
Number of affiliated societies	505	519
	Francs.	*Francs.*
Share capital	1,540,000	1,569,600
Reserve fund	3,050,000	3,150,000
Sales during year:		
To affiliated societies	139,127,083	113,805,579
To others	5,292,614	4,615,928
Net surplus for year		310,028

[8] Verband Schweiz. Konsumvereine (V.S. K.). Rapports et comptes concernant l'activité des organes de l'union en 1922. Basel, 1923.

CONGRESSES, CONVENTIONS, ETC.

International Socio-Economic Congress and Exhibition at Buenos Aires, 1924.[1]

THE Argentine Social Institute (*Museo Social Argentino*) is organizing an international socio-economic congress and exhibition to be held in Buenos Aires the latter part of 1924. The congress is to be made up of representatives of both national and international official and unofficial institutions devoted to social improvement, delegates from national, provincial, and municipal governments, and private individuals who are interested in social economics. Considerable interest in the congress has already been manifested and promises of collaboration have been received from social institutes in many other countries.

The congress will be divided into six sections, as follows: (1) Social institutes and similar organizations, (2) labor questions, (3) public health, (4) education, (5) agrarian questions, and (6) social statistics and general social questions.

The provisional program is as follows:

SECTION I.—*Social institutes and similar organizations.*

1. Definition of social institutes; their objects.
2. Advisability of promoting the creation of social institutes in countries where they do not already exist. Methods to be adopted for this purpose.
3. Internal organization of social institutes and similar organizations; financial resources; most efficacious methods of action.
4. International activities of social institutes and similar organizations; coordination of their work. International cooperation.
5. Compilation of a social bibliography.
6. Relations between social institutes and Government authorities.

SECTION II.—*Labor questions.*

1. Stage reached in the various parliaments with regard to the draft conventions and recommendations adopted by the various sessions of the International Labor Conference.
2. International conventions on social questions.
3. International social insurance.
4. International situation of the emigrant worker.
5. Works councils as official bodies.
6. Profit sharing.
7. Trade-union policy and principles of trade-union legislation.
8. Encouragement of savings banks and other thrift institutions.
9. Situation of the mutual benefit movement with regard to compulsory insurance.
10. Cost of living of the worker in relation to his remuneration (international inquiry).

SECTION III.—*Public health.*

1. The drink problem. Methods of action; international coordination.
2. Tuberculosis. Methods of action; international coordination.
3. Syphilis. Methods of action; international coordination.

[1] Boletín de Servicios de la Asociación del Trabajo, Buenos Aires, Mar. 5, 1923 (pp. 123, 124); International Labor Office, Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, Jan. 19, 1923 (pp. 39–43), and Jan. 26, 1923 (pp. 11–15).

4. Leprosy. Methods of action; international coordination.
5. Malaria. Methods of action; international coordination.
6. Occupational diseases.
7. Popular hygiene.
8. First aid. Hospitals, etc.
9. Diet of the poorer classes.
10. Comparative study of the organization and working of health ministries and government departments engaged in health work in different countries, and of the results achieved.
11. Organization of the training of male and female social welfare workers (nurses in hospitals, schools, works and factories, health visitors, organizers, etc.).
12. Comparative study of the organization of private welfare institutions in various countries and their relations with the State.
13. International conventions on health questions.

SECTION IV.—*Education.*

1. Home training before, during, and after school attendance age.
2. Abnormal and backward children.
3. Child welfare work.
4. Physical training of children and adults.
5. Vocational guidance.
6. Training of teachers.
7. Campaign against illiteracy among the rural population.
8. Moving pictures, the phonograph, and wireless telephony as means of instruction.
9. The place of the theater and books in the education of the people.
10. Artistic education.
11. Should the general spread of education by means of extension lectures, etc., be effected at the cost of a certain curtailment of courses of instruction given in schools and universities?

SECTION V.—*Agrarian questions.*

1. Comparative importance of agriculture, commerce, and industry in various countries (international inquiry).
2. Agricultural trade-unions, their relations with agricultural mutual benefit and cooperative societies.
3. International relations between mutual benefit societies, cooperative societies, and trade-unions of agricultural workers.
4. Organization of agricultural credit.
5. Systems of land settlement.
6. Organization of international trade in agricultural products.
7. Principles of organization of vocational education in agriculture.
8. Influence on agrarian progress of special courses of domestic training for women in agricultural districts.

SECTION VI.—*Social statistics and general social questions.*

1. Need of organizing a special system of social statistics. Subject matter and methods. International organization.
2. Representation of occupational interests in governments. Discussion of experiments already made and contemporary tendencies.
3. The solution of the problem of the comparative stabilization of the exchanges in international commerce.

An exhibition of social economics is to be held in connection with the congress, and will include exhibits of machinery, models, designs, pictures, engravings, photographs, diagrams, and publications which have a bearing on any phases of social economics. All exhibits will be grouped in national sections, under the immediate direction and supervision of the Government or organization which is responsible for the respective national section. There will be a special section for international organizations.

The provisional arrangement of exhibit classes is as follows:

Class 1. International organizations.
Organizations for peace, conciliation, justice, protection, and social improvement.
Class 2. Social institutes and similar organizations.

Labor departments and ministries, institutes of social reform and social welfare, official and private, workers' health institutes, institutions for social research, and the promotion of social reforms; their organization, working, and results achieved, etc.

Class 3. Education.

Ministries of public instruction and fine arts, universities, schools, colleges. Vocational education, home training, reformatories, physical training, domestic training for women in rural districts, libraries, other methods of propaganda for the improvement of social conditions.

Class 4. Accident prevention and accident insurance.

Safety devices and industrial hygiene in urban and rural industries, first aid in industrial accidents.

Class 5. Social insurance.

Mutual benefit societies, trade-union insurance societies, reinsurance societies, cooperative societies, compulsory insurance.

Class 6. Profit sharing.

Class 7. Trade federations, trade associations, public employment exchanges.

Class 8. Agricultural unions and their work. Other agricultural associations.

Class 9. Workers' associations for production.

Class 10. Distributive cooperative societies.

Class 11. Agricultural institutions.

Ministries of agriculture, industry, and food. Agricultural credit departments, non-trade-union agricultural mutual benefit and cooperative associations.

Class 12. Housing, urban and rural.

Class 13. Mutual aid societies.

Class 14. Savings banks.

National savings banks. Other savings bank institutions.

Class 15. Institutions to promote intellectual, moral, and social development.

Class 16. Institutions for economic development.

Class 17. Health.

Occupational risks, occupational diseases, industrial health and risks, personal protection of the workers, popular hygiene and relief, diseases of the skin, care of the teeth, campaign against tuberculosis, hygienic housing conditions, measures for protection against fire and explosions, hospitals, sanatoriums, etc., campaign against malaria, infant welfare.

Class 18. Public relief and private charity.

Class 19. Rehabilitation of the disabled.

The Argentine Social Institute was organized in 1911, and was made a corporate body by a decree of May 27, 1918. Dr. Tomás Amadeo, the secretary-general of the institute, has this to say of its membership and activities:

The institute is not an official organization, though it works in close and friendly contact with the Argentine Government. It has approximately 1,000 members of the most varied political and philosophical views, representing all the best and most distinguished elements in the intellectual and public life of the country. They include ministers, deputies, senators, professors, founders, and directors of institutions of various kinds, and other leading men. The institute is in fact a center uniting the most important institutions of the country. Universities, scientific, literary, industrial, and labor organizations, etc., are members of the institute, and have found occasion to collaborate with it. These facts have contributed to give the institute extraordinary moral prestige both in Argentina and abroad.

In its library and archives the institute collects and coordinates information concerning Argentina and foreign countries. The material thus collected is studied and utilized for the instruction of the people, for the development of social work, for social legislation, and for the dissemination of information.

The institute issues a monthly bulletin and various special nonperiodical publications, and also organizes courses of lectures and meetings for the discussion of questions of practical interest at the moment. It has also organized a series of congresses which have had, and will no doubt continue to have, a considerable influence on the social evolution of the country and on its legislation.

Among these congresses were the mutual benefit congress in 1918, the first and second Argentine cooperative congresses in 1919 and 1921, and the first national housing congress in 1920. A third cooperative congress is being planned for the current year.

IMMIGRATION.

Immigration Quota for 1924.

THE United States Bureau of Immigration has just issued figures giving the quota of aliens admissible to the United States, during the year ending June 30, 1924, under the act of May 19, 1921, as extended by Public Resolution No. 55, 67th Congress, approved May 11, 1922. These figures are given in the table below:

NUMBER OF ALIENS ADMISSIBLE FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1924, BY COUNTRY OR REGION OF BIRTH.

Country or region of birth.[1]	Number admissible annually.	Number admissible monthly.
Albania	288	58
Armenia (Russian)	230	46
Austria	7,342	1,468
Belgium	1,563	313
Bulgaria	302	61
Czechoslovakia	14,357	2,871
Danzig, Free City of[2]	301	60
Denmark	5,619	1,124
Esthonia	1,348	270
Finland	3,921	784
Fiume, Free State of[2]	71	14
France	5,729	1,146
Germany	67,706	13,521
Great Britain and Northern Ireland, Irish Free State	77,342	15,468
Greece	3,063	613
Hungary (including Sopron district)	5,747	1,149
Iceland	75	15
Italy	42,057	8,411
Latvia	1,540	308
Lithuania (including Memel region and part of Pinsk region)	2,629	526
Luxemburg	92	19
Netherlands	3,607	721
Norway	12,202	2,440
Poland (including Eastern Galicia and part of Pinsk region)	30,977	6,195
Portugal (including Azores and Madeira Islands)	2,465	493
Rumania	7,419	1,484
Russia, European and Asiatic (excluding the barred zone)	24,405	4,881
Spain (including Canary Islands)	912	182
Sweden	20,042	4,008
Switzerland	3,752	750
Yugoslavia	6,426	1,285
Other Europe (including Andorra, Gibraltar, Liechtenstein, Malta, Monaco, and San Marino)	86	17
Palestine	57	12
Syria	882	177
Turkey, European and Asiatic (including eastern Thrace, Imbros, Tenedos, and area north of 1921 Turko-Syrian boundary)	2,654	531
Other Asia (including Cyprus, Hedjaz, Iraq (Mesopotamia), Persia, Rhodes with Dodekanesia and Castellorizzo, and any other Asiatic territory not included in the barred zone. Persons born in Asiatic Russia and included in the Russia quota)	92	19
Africa (other than Egypt)	104	21
Egypt	18	4
Atlantic Islands (other than Azores, Canary Islands, Madeira Islands, and islands adjacent to the American continents)	121	24
Australia	279	56
New Zealand and Pacific Islands	80	16
Total	357,803	71,561

[1] The immigration quotas assigned to the various countries and regions should not be regarded as having any political significance whatever, or as involving recognition of new governments, or of new boundaries, or of transfers of territory, except as the United States Government has already made such recognition in a formal and official manner.

[2] Given up by Hungary and by Austria, and therefore can not be included in the quota of either of those countries.

Statistics of Immigration for April, 1923.

By W. W. HUSBAND, COMMISSIONER GENERAL OF IMMIGRATION.

THE following tables show the total number of immigrant aliens admitted into the United States and emigrant aliens departed from the United States from July, 1922, to April, 1923. The tabulations are presented according to the countries of last permanent or future permanent residences, races or peoples, occupations, and States of future permanent or last permanent residence. The last table (Table 6) shows the number of aliens admitted under the per centum limit act of May 19, 1921, from July 1, 1922, to June 20, 1923.

TABLE 1.—INWARD AND OUTWARD PASSENGER MOVEMENT, JULY, 1922, TO APRIL, 1923.

Period.	Arrivals.					Departures.			
	Immigrant aliens admitted.	Nonimmigrant aliens admitted.	United States citizens arrived.	Aliens debarred.	Total arrivals.	Emigrant aliens.	Nonemigrant aliens.	United States citizens.	Total departures.
July to December, 1922	271,732	80,865	181,101	8,967	542,665	55,139	66,401	143,762	265,302
January, 1923	28,773	9,480	15,645	1,569	55,467	4,232	7,270	16,120	27,622
February, 1923	30,118	8,642	20,217	1,290	60,267	2,794	6,050	21,257	30,101
March, 1923	42,888	10,442	26,181	1,844	81,355	3,610	7,020	19,583	30,213
April, 1923	52,433	12,702	24,563	2,000	91,698	4,509	9,254	19,209	32,972
Total	425,944	122,131	287,707	15,670	831,452	70,284	95,995	219,931	386,210

TABLE 2.—LAST PERMANENT RESIDENCE OF IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED AND FUTURE PERMANENT RESIDENCE OF EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED, APRIL, 1923, AND FROM JULY, 1922, TO APRIL, 1923, BY COUNTRIES.

Country.	Immigrant.		Emigrant.	
	April, 1923.	July, 1922, to April, 1923.	April, 1923.	July, 1922, to April, 1923.
Austria	96	8,050	27	204
Hungary	23	5,874	36	804
Belgium	22	1,555	30	514
Bulgaria	1	388	5	139
Czechoslovakia	41	13,768	105	1,780
Denmark	596	3,225	3	401
Finland	134	3,602	17	266
France, including Corsica	315	3,781	158	1,248
Germany	5,598	32,763	82	1,278
Greece	24	3,277	134	2,686
Italy, including Sicily and Sardinia	625	45,195	1,377	21,277
Netherlands	714	2,797	34	357
Norway	1,569	7,970	31	670
Poland	699	25,806	150	4,908
Portugal, including Cape Verde and Azores Islands	37	2,309	121	2,334
Rumania	216	11,904	57	1,046
Russia	724	17,178	100	2,216
Spain, including Canary and Balearic Islands	32	775	83	2,147
Sweden	2,703	13,246	64	728
Switzerland	80	3,254	38	438
Turkey in Europe	60	3,703	3	115
United Kingdom:				
England	3,412	20,101	427	4,561
Ireland	3,055	14,984	78	1,167
Scotland	4,991	19,917	43	637
Wales	199	1,100	1	30
Yugoslavia	29	6,133	125	1,813
Other Europe	13	432	8	157
Total Europe	25,608	273,087	3,337	53,921
China	274	4,304	193	3,144
Japan	590	4,609	252	2,580
India	17	205	8	139
Turkey in Asia	65	2,133	41	690
Other Asia	16	431	11	66
Total Asia	962	11,682	505	6,619
Africa	24	498	8	100
Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand	42	595	27	383
Pacific islands, not specified	3	41	1	20
British North America	16,427	78,942	172	2,321
Central America	74	854	41	474
Mexico	7,097	47,262	166	2,296
South America	629	3,668	91	1,187
West Indies	1,167	9,301	161	2,955
Other countries	.....	14	.....	8
Grand total	52,433	425,944	4,509	70,284
Male	33,912	246,301	3,002	48,142
Female	18,521	179,643	1,507	22,142

TABLE 3.—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED APRIL, 1923, AND FROM JULY, 1922, TO APRIL, 1923, BY RACES OR PEOPLES.

Race or people.	Immigrant.		Emigrant.	
	April, 1923.	July, 1922, to April, 1923.	April, 1923.	July, 1922, to April, 1923
African (black)	744	4,987	56	841
Armenian	48	2,347	3	65
Bohemian and Moravian (Czech)	42	5,452	86	1,447
Bulgarian, Serbian, and Montenegrin	22	1,854	109	1,636
Chinese	290	3,398	179	3,244
Croatian and Slovenian	14	4,138	5	212
Cuban	89	1,010	29	625
Dalmatian, Bosnian, and Herzegovinian	26	560	17	139
Dutch and Flemish	927	4,997	87	924
East Indian	4	129	6	107
English	8,953	46,341	581	6,616
Finnish	176	2,960	23	319
French	5,048	22,268	165	1,566
German	6,102	48,717	141	1,829
Greek	48	4,091	138	2,736
Hebrew	2,111	47,883	12	381
Irish	5,209	25,612	76	1,279
Italian (north)	124	8,732	163	2,267
Italian (south)	720	37,599	1,225	19,178
Japanese	584	4,474	250	2,562
Korean	3	71	4	45
Lithuanian	50	1,765	18	1,071
Magyar	34	6,809	50	940
Mexican	6,991	46,422	157	2,178
Pacific Islander	1	14	.....	6
Polish	366	12,482	158	4,731
Portuguese	126	2,596	130	2,422
Rumanian	30	1,316	53	973
Russian	234	3,937	95	1,339
Ruthenian (Russniak)	91	890	.....	22
Scandinavian (Norwegians, Danes, and Swedes)	5,151	27,163	119	2,039
Scotch	7,087	30,338	61	984
Slovak	31	6,170	14	337
Spanish	256	2,731	142	2,642
Spanish American	187	1,404	77	948
Syrian	52	1,144	24	502
Turkish	6	223	11	107
Welsh	244	1,345	1	53
West Indian (except Cuban)	180	1,014	26	496
Other peoples	32	561	18	257
Total	52,433	425,944	4,509	70,284

TABLE 4.—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED APRIL, 1923, AND FROM JULY, 1922, TO APRIL, 1923, BY OCCUPATIONS.

Occupation.	Immigrant.		Emigrant.	
	April, 1923.	July, 1922, to April, 1923.	April, 1923.	July, 1922, to April, 1923.
Professional:				
Actors	52	644	8	109
Architects	40	214	3	26
Clergy	101	1,489	29	381
Editors	6	70	3	17
Electricians	406	1,740	2	59
Engineers (professional)	349	2,058	13	201
Lawyers	7	141	.....	32
Literary and scientific persons	61	535	6	78
Musicians	91	922	5	102
Officials (Government)	49	434	8	169
Physicians	51	590	4	104
Sculptors	14	251	7	64
Teachers	230	2,204	20	319
Other professional	331	2,312	29	422
Total	1,788	13,604	137	2,083

TABLE 4.—IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED APRIL, 1923, AND FROM JULY, 1922, TO APRIL, 1923, BY OCCUPATIONS—Concld.

Occupation.	Immigrant.		Emigrant.	
	April, 1923.	July, 1922, to April, 1923.	April, 1923.	July, 1922, to April, 1923.
Skilled:				
Bakers	268	2,377	15	184
Barbers and hairdressers	132	1,599	16	235
Blacksmiths	257	1,829	5	94
Bookbinders	16	143	1	8
Brewers	4	24	.....	2
Butchers	182	1,645	6	149
Cabinetmakers	43	292	4	56
Carpenters and joiners	1,863	9,402	20	438
Cigarette makers	8	35	.....	1
Cigar makers	25	227	17	172
Cigar packers	1	7	.....	3
Clerks and accountants	1,792	12,620	102	1,287
Dressmakers	254	3,722	17	227
Engineers (locomotive, marine, and stationary)	504	2,376	8	100
Furriers and fur workers	24	242	1	13
Gardeners	141	716	15	115
Hat and cap makers	14	213	1	8
Iron and steel workers	817	3,248	6	60
Jewelers	24	231	3	32
Locksmiths	225	1,361	2	11
Machinists	800	3,338	14	291
Mariners	761	4,817	16	310
Masons	328	2,644	9	171
Mechanics (not specified)	621	3,558	16	249
Metal workers (other than iron, steel, and tin)	167	583	1	9
Millers	24	211	.....	12
Milliners	43	576	.....	32
Miners	739	4,681	80	684
Painters and glaziers	388	1,900	5	162
Pattern makers	44	185	.....	2
Photographers	30	282	3	29
Plasterers	92	412	1	18
Plumbers	241	931	.....	30
Printers	130	663	4	53
Saddlers and harness makers	22	179	1	2
Seamstresses	135	1,696	1	55
Shoemakers	161	3,001	17	332
Stokers	78	561	.....	43
Stonecutters	118	373	1	16
Tailors	342	5,082	20	415
Tanners and curriers	29	150	1	6
Textile workers (not specified)	81	289	.....	7
Tinners	48	375	.....	19
Tobacco workers	5	22	.....	2
Upholsterers	35	164	3	16
Watch and clock makers	18	304	5	25
Weavers and spinners	253	1,575	40	356
Wheelwrights	13	52	.....	.....
Woodworkers (not specified)	58	234	1	15
Other skilled	607	4,062	33	452
Total	13,005	85,209	511	7,008
Miscellaneous:				
Agents	234	1,110	8	103
Bankers	13	98	9	71
Draymen, hackmen, and teamsters	183	689	5	43
Farm laborers	2,927	21,220	52	763
Farmers	1,187	10,072	121	1,516
Fishermen	270	1,425	3	48
Hotel keepers	11	141	3	32
Laborers	8,474	65,755	1,667	29,757
Manufacturers	27	280	5	63
Merchants and dealers	604	7,620	162	2,213
Servants	3,896	45,355	152	2,807
Other miscellaneous	2,444	16,227	195	2,587
Total	20,270	169,992	2,382	40,003
No occupation (including women and children)	17,370	157,139	1,479	21,190
Grand total	52,433	425,944	4,509	70,284

TABLE 5.—FUTURE PERMANENT RESIDENCE OF IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED AND LAST PERMANENT RESIDENCE OF EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED APRIL, 1923, AND FROM JULY, 1922, TO APRIL, 1923, BY STATES AND TERRITORIES.

State or Territory.	Immigrant.		Emigrant.	
	April, 1923.	July, 1922, to April, 1923.	April, 1923.	July, 1922, to April, 1923.
Alabama	36	353	4	35
Alaska	26	157	6	63
Arizona	751	7,358	47	320
Arkansas	18	181	4	13
California	3,513	30,997	530	6,642
Colorado	81	1,255	27	254
Connecticut	914	8,083	69	1,421
Delaware	56	423	4	64
District of Columbia	93	1,165	31	308
Florida	228	2,341	98	941
Georgia	40	388	4	50
Hawaii	241	2,140	12	378
Idaho	86	577	7	93
Illinois	3,094	30,108	198	4,036
Indiana	329	3,712	26	414
Iowa	484	2,871	9	248
Kansas	153	1,149	1	100
Kentucky	46	439	6	63
Louisiana	66	884	26	325
Maine	1,330	6,156	17	129
Maryland	201	2,139	26	293
Massachusetts	5,298	32,271	385	6,198
Michigan	5,738	27,607	104	2,128
Minnesota	929	5,815	15	544
Mississippi	30	253	4	28
Missouri	320	3,228	23	410
Montana	311	1,400	21	216
Nebraska	217	1,579	19	208
Nevada	22	290	4	58
New Hampshire	783	3,310	6	94
New Jersey	2,412	22,050	165	2,896
New Mexico	95	899	11	76
New York	11,081	111,573	1,658	27,611
North Carolina	38	264	1	34
North Dakota	181	1,107	7	116
Ohio	1,392	15,328	160	2,433
Oklahoma	43	453	3	57
Oregon	346	3,173	24	394
Pennsylvania	2,971	33,841	397	5,591
Philippine Islands	.....	5	.....	5
Porto Rico	14	199	3	170
Rhode Island	925	4,975	59	871
South Carolina	16	134	.....	15
South Dakota	122	665	2	63
Tennessee	35	329	2	32
Texas	5,164	32,927	91	1,175
Utah	94	868	28	223
Vermont	160	1,547	1	45
Virginia	168	1,064	8	111
Virgin Islands	2	16	1	4
Washington	1,058	8,286	57	1,151
West Virginia	96	1,464	56	435
Wisconsin	536	5,693	38	631
Wyoming	50	455	4	73
Total	52,433	425,944	4,509	70,284

TABLE 6.—STATUS OF THE IMMIGRATION OF ALIENS INTO THE UNITED STATES UNDER THE PER CENTUM LIMIT ACT OF MAY 19, 1921, AS EXTENDED BY PUBLIC RESOLUTION NO. 55, SIXTY-SEVENTH CONGRESS, APPROVED MAY 11, 1922, JULY 1, 1922, TO JUNE 20, 1923.

Country or region of birth.	Maximum monthly quota.	Admitted June 1-20, 1923.	Annual quota.	Admitted July 1, 1922, to June 20, 1923.	Balance for year.[1]
Albania	58	.....	288	288	[2]
Armenia (Russian)	46	.....	230	230	[2]
Austria	1,499	15	7,451	7,346	92
Belgium	313	.....	1,563	1,563	[2]
Bulgaria	61	.....	302	295	4
Czechoslovakia	2,871	.....	14,357	14,357	[2]
Danzig	60	23	301	256	59
Denmark	1,124	406	5,619	5,036	758
Finland	784	.....	3,921	3,921	[2]
Fiume	14	.....	71	67	4
France	1,146	262	5,729	4,908	912
Germany	13,521	5,693	67,607	46,627	25,237
Greece	659	.....	3,294	3,294	[2]
Hungary	1,128	.....	5,638	5,638	[2]
Iceland	15	6	75	59	22
Italy	8,411	.....	42,057	42,057	[2]
Luxemburg	19	.....	92	92	[2]
Netherlands	721	.....	3,607	3,607	[2]
Norway	2,440	1,252	12,202	12,202	26
Poland (including Eastern Galicia and Pinsk Region)	6,229	266	31,146	29,627	1,629
Portugal	493	.....	2,465	2,465	[2]
Rumania	1,484	.....	7,419	7,419	[2]
Russia (including Bessarabian Region)	4,881	.....	24,405	24,405	[2]
Esthonian Region	270	15	1,348	238	1,121
Latvian Region	308	28	1,540	1,512	18
Lithuanian and Memel Regions	492	.....	2,460	2,460	[2]
Spain	182	.....	912	912	[2]
Sweden	4,008	747	20,042	19,853	215
Switzerland	750	.....	3,752	3,752	[2]
United Kingdom	15,468	.....	77,342	77,342	[2]
Yugoslavia	1,285	.....	6,426	6,426	[2]
Other Europe	17	.....	86	86	[2]
Palestine	12	.....	57	57	[2]
Syria	186	.....	928	928	[2]
Turkey	478	.....	2,388	2,388	[2]
Other Asia	16	.....	81	81	[2]
Africa	25	.....	122	122	[2]
Atlantic Islands	24	5	121	118	4
Australia	56	.....	279	279	[2]
New Zealand and Pacific Islands	16	.....	80	80	[2]
Total	71,561	8,718	357,803	332,393	30,101

[1] After deducting from the annual quota all admissions and pending cases for which quotas have been granted.
[2] Annual quota exhausted.

Brazil's Provisions for Rural Immigrants.[1]

RURAL immigrants and their families arriving at the port of Rio de Janeiro are furnished by the Brazilian Government with board and any medical attention needed, including prescriptions, at the Immigrants' Inn, "Ilha das Flores," until they can proceed to their station or port of destination, to which they and their baggage are transported at Government expense. Their baggage and agricultural implements are exempt from taxation. Interpreters of several languages are available and, if needed, may accompany the new arrivals. The Direction of the Population Service keeps a record of the demands for rural labor, from farms located in several States, together with the wages paid and advantageous

[1] Data received from Brazilian Embassy May 29, 1923.

conditions of employment, and these opportunities are made available to those seeking positions.

Immigrants who do not desire salaried positions or who do not care to enter into contracts with farmers may go to Federal colony settlements where there are convenient lots, with or without houses, already prepared, or they may go to other districts suggested by the Direction of the Population Service.

Immigrants who settle in Government colonies have also the following privileges: Transportation to the designated colony; three days' employment, on salary or contract, in the construction of roads or on other jobs at the settlement, during six to eight months, so that each head of a family will have, on an average, 15 days' work each month, sufficient for the maintenance of his family until the first harvest; free medicines and "diets" during the first year of settlement; free medical attendance "until the emancipation of the colony"; free farm implements; periodical distribution of seeds, plants, publications, etc.; primary and agricultural instruction for children between 6 and 14 years of age, and free distribution of books to the children of poor colonists; facilities for postal and telegraphic correspondence; and information as to rights and obligations, etc.

The average rural lot is 25 hectares (61.775 acres) and sells at from 8 to 30 milreis ($4.37 to $16.39, par) per hectare. These lots are to be had with or without houses, which are sold at cost. Temporary dwellings will be supplied by the Direction of the Population Service to those who desire to build their own homes.

Payment is to be made by the colonists in annual installments covering five or eight years, but such amortization does not begin until after the third year of settlement.

To immigrants coming to Brazil with families of at least three persons over 12 and under 50 years of age and placed in Government colonies, the Government credits the amount of the passage (third class) from abroad of such immigrants and their families on the purchase of house, land, and other benefits. The right to this refund lapses if the aliens concerned fail to claim it within two years from the date of the arrival of the boat which brought them to Brazil.

It is stated that there are fine opportunities for rural immigrants in Sao Paulo, as the coffee plantations are now in great need of labor. A large number of immigrants have become prosperous in this State and are at present wealthy landowners.

STANDARDIZATION.

Standardization of State Labor Statistics.

SUGGESTIONS relative to the desirable form and content for the reports of State labor offices are made in an article entitled, "A plan for State labor statistics," by Mr. Leo Wolman, member of the faculty of the new School of Social Research, New York, in the May, 1923, number of The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. A summary of these suggestions is given here:

Monthly bulletins.—Monthly bulletins covering the subjects listed below would meet the immediate requirements of a progressive State department of labor and industry:

1. Numbers of persons on the pay roll of factories, one week in each month, classified into detailed industrial divisions.
2. Total wages paid for the same week, similarly classified.
3. Rate of pay for common labor, shown preferably by geographical district and by industry.
4. Changes in the rates of wages reported during the month.
5. Cost of living and retail food prices either taken from the report of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics or collected independently where such reports are not available.
6. The volume of building, as an index of business conditions.
7. Reports of bureaus in the department only when the quick publication is necessary and when the data have been subjected to adequate analysis.

The issuance of a comprehensive monthly report makes the publication of a quarterly publication less urgent. The latter, however, is especially useful for summarizing the activities of different bureaus and for such data as unemployment among trade-unionists.

Annual report.—The annual report of the department, including all its bureaus, should be very carefully prepared, should not repeat material already published in the monthlies or quarterlies but should contain systematic and comprehensive accounts of the work of the various subordinate departmental services. This report should be published in a single volume as early as possible after the end of the calendar or fiscal year. In Mr. Wolman's judgment, the practice of issuing the reports of different bureaus as separates encourages delay in the preparation of such reports and in inconvenience to the persons using them. This annual volume should contain in addition at least trade-union wage rates and hours and an annotated edition of laws and court decisions relating to labor.

Special reports.—Special periodic reports should be published when they embody the results of special investigations of widespread interest.

General reports.—General reports on current rulings of boards, the drafting of new codes, standards, posters, etc., the writer thinks, present no particular publication problems.

Standardization of Reports.

THE following are mentioned as among the most requisite qualities for State labor reports:

Timeliness.—State reports can not be published too soon after the close of the administrative period, bearing as they do upon proposed legislative and executive policy. Public agencies and business men complain of the lack of promptness in getting out government documents.

Clarity and precision.—The reports of State offices should be considered as reliable sources of first-hand information and as dealing in an unbiased way with facts. Illustrations of vague statements in public labor reports are easily found. The following is an especially striking example: "Total and involuntary unemployment," according to one report, "reached its peak" on a given date, approximating some hundred thousands of "totally and involuntarily unemployed persons as expressed in man power and working hours."

Continuity.—Continuity is to be preferred to exhaustiveness. A continuous series of wage statistics going back to 1914 is of more value than a discontinuous one supplemented by statistics on building permits. Unless the need for new reports is imperative "the ends of good statistical reporting will be best served by the maintenance of modest but continuous series of data."

Uniformity, convenience, completeness, and circulation.—The New York and Massachusetts reports are specially cited for their attractiveness, uniformity, and "high standards of conception and workmanship. Tables have been carefully planned. * * * The materials are not scrappy but are designed to present a fairly complete picture of the subject." The combination of these qualities, Mr. Wolman declares, gives a large circulation to these documents. Furthermore, in both of these States complete lists of their publications are available. Such a list should be issued at least once a year by every State department.

Functions and Personnel.

THE functions of a statistical division of a department of labor and industries are "the direct collection of statistical materials, the undertaking of special investigations, supervision and control over statistical work of subordinate bureaus, and the assumption of responsibility for the prompt publication of all current and special reports." The division should have an adequate staff in charge of an expert statistician and should be directly under the executive authority of the department.

Unification of Purchase Specifications in American Industry

AN ADDRESS by the secretary of the American Engineering Standards Committee at the annual meeting of the National Association of Purchasing Agents at Cleveland, Ohio, May 16, 1923, outlines the accomplishments of manufacturing firms and associations of manufacturers in the standardization of industrial prod-

ucts and in purchase of supplies as well as what has been done on a national and international scale.

The purchases of supplies, construction materials, and other products, by State and municipal government departments, amounting to approximately $700,000,000 yearly, are largely uncoordinated, in many instances different departments of a city or State buying the same materials at the same time at different prices and under different specifications or with no specifications at all. The purchases of material and supplies in those industries represented in the National Association of Purchasing Agents alone amount to more than a billion dollars a year. The waste resulting from uncoordinated purchasing is in both cases very great, although it is relatively less in industry than in local and State departments.

The purpose of industrial standardization is "to single out specific products and materials, to settle upon their properties and dimensions, and to concentrate upon them in production and in use—all to the end of bringing about the greatest overall industrial efficiency possible."

Standardization by individual firms and by associations has been well developed in all industrial countries and many of the standards developed have come into such general use that they have become national in character. The American Society for Testing Materials has developed purchase specifications and methods of testing which have had great influence in the supplies of materials for a large group of manufacturing and consuming industries; the Society of Automotive Engineers has developed dimensional standards which have been of great importance in the development of the automobile industry, while dimensional standardization and specification work have been carried out by the railroads for many years; and the standardization rules of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers have been of fundamental importance in the development of electric machinery and apparatus.

Industrial standardization along national lines is said to be well under way, sixteen countries, including the United States, now having national standardizing bodies. The British and Germans[1] have the largest organizations and have engaged in the most extensive work. The French and Japanese bodies are organized under the Government ministries of commerce in the two countries, while the organizations in the other countries, although industrial in origin, have the cooperation of their national Governments.

In 1917 a joint committee was formed by the different national engineering societies and the American Society for Testing Materials for the purpose of studying the problem of standardization. Two years were spent in formulating a plan which was acceptable to the different organizations. Since that time the work has grown rapidly, 40 "American standards" and "tentative American standards" having been approved, with a hundred other projects under way. Over 200 national organizations are participating in the work and more than 1,000 men are serving on the committees.

Until quite recently the purchases of the Federal Government have been made independently by the various departments, but a Federal

[1] See MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, December, 1921, pp. 10, 11.

Specifications Board was organized by the first Director of the Budget for the purpose of unification as far as practicable of all Government specifications. As the Government is one of the largest purchasers of industrial products, both in the amount and range of supplies, this work is particularly important. Up to the present time more than 70 specifications have been adopted and the board is actively at work on many more. These specifications are submitted to the American Engineering Standards Committee, for approval or criticism, with the aim of unifying industrial and Government specifications. This work will result in much benefit to the different industries and in important economies to the Federal Government.

Much has already been accomplished in securing international uniformity in the use of fundamental units and methods of measurement. This work is being done by national standardizing laboratories in the principal industrial countries, the United States Bureau of Standards being the laboratory for this country. Cooperation among these national organizations, while of an informal nature as yet, has resulted in substantial progress, and includes work on such items as ball bearings, systems of dimensional gaging, nuts and bolts, and similar problems, including some work on specifications.

WHAT STATE LABOR BUREAUS ARE DOING.

North Carolina.[1]

A BUREAU for the deaf was created in the North Carolina department of labor and printing by a law passed by the General Assembly of 1923. This new agency will look after the welfare of the State's deaf citizens, not only endeavoring to secure employment for them but gathering data regarding their conditions in life, with a view to the "general uplift" of these handicapped persons.

Pennsylvania.[2]

Safety and Sanitation Publicity Campaign.

THE department of labor and industry of Pennsylvania is about to inaugurate a publicity campaign for the promotion of safety and sanitation. The commissioner of labor and industry has appointed Harry A. Nye, a member of the industrial board, to formulate a plan "with special emphasis on the possibility of making motion pictures of departmental activities along the lines of inspection, safety, and sanitation." The Pennsylvania Society of Safety Engineers will probably be requested to aid in working out the details of the scheme.

Adoption of Revised Industrial Lighting Code.[2]

A revised industrial lighting code was adopted by the Pennsylvania Industrial Board on May 10, 1923. The revision is based on the national lighting code which was adopted as the American standard by the American Engineering Standards committee. The public hearings, however, brought out the need for some changes "in the intensity requirements provided in the national code and for providing minimum and recommendatory intensities for a number of industries not covered by the national code." The revision also includes rules on emergency lighting and protection against explosion and two tables, one for determining the necessary illumination for industrial establishments and the other giving the minimum and recommended intensities for different industries and occupations.

A summary of the adopted code follows:

RULE 378. *Distribution of light.*—(a) (A–I) Lamps shall be installed in regard to height, spacing, reflectors or other accessories to secure a good distribution of light on the work, avoiding objectionable shadows and excessively sharp contrasts.

RULE 379. *Emergency lighting.*—(a) (A–I) All ways of egress or means of escape in establishments wherein persons are employed after darkness shall be provided with a reliable emergency electric lighting circuit, of a type to be approved by the commissioner of labor and industry.

Such emergency lighting shall have a minimum intensity of 0.50-foot candle on the space.

RULE 380. *Intensity of illumination.*

RULE 381. (a) Gas, vapor, and dust proof lighting fixtures shall be provided at all places where explosive gas, vapor, or dust accumulate.

[1] Report of the commissioner of labor and printing of North Carolina to the Tenth Annual Convention of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada, Richmond, Va., May 1–4, 1923.

[2] Pennsylvania. Department of Labor and Industry. Industrial board. Bulletin of Information. [Harrisburg] May, 1923.

CURRENT NOTES OF INTEREST TO LABOR.

National Survey of Apprentice Systems.[1]

THE American Management Association has recently appointed a committee to make a nation-wide investigation of the apprentice system. The chairman of the committee, which is a large one representing many important industries, is Mr. L. L. Park, supervisor of welfare in the American Locomotive Co.'s works at Schenectady, N. Y. One of the aims of the committee is to modernize and unify existing apprentice systems.

Workers' Education—A New Publication.

THE Workers' Education Bureau of America, located in New York City, has gone into the journalistic field. In April it issued the first number of Workers' Education, whose aim, as stated in the foreword, is to be a channel for the expression of the workers' education movement in America.

Change in Personnel of Maryland Industrial Accident Commission.[2]

MR. ROBERT H. CARR has been appointed to the chairmanship of the Maryland Industrial Accident Commission, succeeding Mr. Robert E. Lee, who died June 9, 1923.

Instruction for Foreign Workers as to New York Workmen's Compensation Law.[3]

PAMPHLETS in Polish, Italian, Yiddish, and possibly one or two other languages are to be widely distributed by the New York State Department of Labor among foreign-speaking workers to instruct them how to proceed under the workmen's compensation law in case of injury in the course of their employment.

Meeting of Committee of International Miners' Federation.[4]

THE committee of the International Miners' Federation held a conference at Brussels, April 10 and 11, 1923. The president of the United Mine Workers of America was in attendance and was the first delegate ever sent by his organization to an international meeting of the federation. The hope was expressed by the committee

[1] Christian Science Monitor, Boston, May 1, 1923, p. 1.
[2] Data are from the Baltimore Sun, June 15, 1923, p. 6.
[3] New York. Department of Labor. The Industrial Bulletin, Albany, March, 1923, p. 123.
[4] International Labor Office. Industrial and Labor Information, Geneva, April 27, 1923, p. 2.

that this evidence of sympathy and solidarity "would be followed by closer collaboration between the miners of Europe and America." In response, the delegate from the United States declared that "American workers fully realized the economic interdependence of all countries and the necessity of the united front of the working classes."

International action during strikes was the first subject on the agenda. In connection with this discussion stress was laid on the importance of securing the cooperation of the transport workers because of the difficulties miners had in finding out the destination of mined coal. It was suggested, however, that miners could help their striking comrades in other countries by reducing output in exporting countries and by financial contributions.

A resolution presented by the United States delegate in favor of holding up coal exports toward a country where miners were on strike was unanimously adopted.

Department of Labor of Japan.

REGARDING the new department of labor in Japan, which was forecast in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for January, 1923 (p. 220), the following information from the secretary of the Japanese Embassy, under date of May 18, 1923, is of interest:

A labor department attached to the department of home affairs was created on the 30th of October, 1922, by imperial ordinance which went into effect on the date of its promulgation. The newly created department is called the bureau of social affairs (*Shakwaikyoku*), under which office are centralized all the departments that have heretofore been dealing with labor matters. On the 4th of November, 1922, the following officials were appointed to posts in the bureau, and the new department has been functioning ever since:

Mr. Seiji Tsukamoto, commissioner of the bureau of social affairs.

Mr. Kasekichi Kawarada, director of the first division of the bureau. (This department deals with general affairs concerning labor, the carrying out of factory laws, miners, and international labor business.)

Mr. Kazutami Tago, director of the second division of the bureau. (The second department takes charge of social insurance, the relief of unemployment, the protection of children, charities, and affairs relative to social work, etc.)

DIRECTORY OF LABOR OFFICIALS IN UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

(Bureaus of Labor, Employment Offices, Industrial Commissions, State Compensation Insurance Funds, Compensation Commissions, Minimum Wage Boards Factory Inspection Bureaus, and Arbitration and Conciliation Boards.)

UNITED STATES.

[Omission of salary paid and of explanatory note indicates that the bureau has received no information.]

Designation of office and name and address of official	Salary per annum.
Department of Labor:	
Hon. James J. Davis, Secretary	$12,000
Hon. Edward J. Henning, Assistant Secretary	5,000
Hon. Robe Carl White, Second Assistant Secretary	5,000
Address: 1712 G Street NW., Washington, D. C.	
Bureau of Labor Statistics—	
Ethelbert Stewart, commissioner	5,000
Address: 1712 G Street NW., Washington, D. C.	
Bureau of Immigration—	
W. W. Husband, commissioner general	5,000
Address: 1712 G Street NW., Washington, D. C.	
Bureau of Naturalization—	
Raymond F. Crist, commissioner	4,000
Address: 1712 G Street NW., Washington, D. C.	
Children's Bureau—	
Miss Grace Abbott, chief	5,000
Address: Twentieth Street and Virginia Avenue NW., Washington, D. C.	
Employment Service—	
Francis I. Jones, director general	5,000
Address: 1712 G Street NW., Washington, D. C.	
Division of Conciliation—	
Hugh L. Kerwin, director	5,000
Address: 1712 G Street NW., Washington, D. C.	
Women's Bureau—	
Miss Mary Anderson, director	5,000
Address: Twentieth Street and Virginia Avenue NW., Washington, D. C.	
United States Housing Corporation—	
Robert Watson, director	5,000
Address: Homer Building, 1330 F Street, NW., Washington, D. C.	
United States Employees' Compensation Commission:	
Mrs. Bessie P. Brueggeman, chairman	4,000
John J. Keegan	4,000
Charles H. Verrill	4,000
S. R. Golibart, jr., secretary	3,000
Edw. C. Ernst, medical director	[1]
S. D. Slentz, attorney	4,000
Robert J. Hoage, chief statistician	3,500
Address of commission: "F" Building, Seventh and B Streets NW., Washington, D. C.	

[1] Medical officer of U. S. Public Health Service and receives no compensation from the U. S. Employees' Compensation Commission.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
United States Railroad Labor Board:	
Ben W. Hooper, chairman	$10,000
G. W. W. Hanger, vice chairman	10,000
Horace Baker	10,000
R. M. Barton	10,000
J. H. Elliott	10,000
E. F. Grable	10,000
Samuel Higgins	10,000
W. L. McMenimem	10,000
A. O. Wharton	10,000
L. M. Parker, secretary	5,000
Robert F. Cole, assistant secretary	4,500
M. W. Hart, chief statistician	4,300
H. H. Reed, supervisor of dockets	4,200
Bureau No. 1—	
G. W. Berry, examiner	4,500
G. A. Cook, secretary	4,200
Bureau No. 2—	
T. E. Bickers, examiner	4,500
Bureau No. 3—	
J. W. Walsh, examiner	4,500
C. J. Crawford, secretary	4,200
Address of board: Transportation Building, 608 South Dearborn Street, Chicago, Ill.	
Alabama.	
Child welfare commission:	
W. W. Brandon, ex officio chairman, governor	.....
Child welfare department—	
Mrs. L. B. Bush, director	3,000
Child-labor division—	
Esther Lee Rider, chief inspector	2,400
Address of commission: Montgomery.	
Compensation commissioner:	
Mrs. Marie B. Owen, ex officio director, department of archives and history, Montgomery	4,500
United States Employment Service:	
H. E. Oliver, special agent, Birmingham	1,560
Alaska.	
Territorial mine inspector and ex officio labor commissioner:	
B. D. Stewart, Juneau	3,000
Arizona.	
State inspector of mines:	
Tom C. Foster, Phoenix	3,000
United States Employment Service:	
A. L. Doolittle, Federal director for State, 121 North Second Avenue, Phoenix	2,100
Arkansas.	
Bureau of labor and statistics:	
T. A. Wilson, commissioner	2,400
J. D. Newcomb, jr., chief boiler inspector	2,100
Address of bureau: State Capitol, Little Rock.	

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Arkansas—Concluded.	
Industrial welfare commission:	
T. A. Wilson, ex officio chairman, commissioner, bureau of labor statistics	(2)
Mrs. M. A. P. McCrary, Hot Springs	(2)
Mrs. J. G. Spurgeon, secretary, 712 Parker Avenue, North Little Rock	(2)
F. E. Bayless, Warren	(2)
I. H. Nakdimen, Fort Smith	(2)
Address of commission: Room 129, State Capitol, Little Rock.	
Mine inspection department:	
Jesse Redyard, State mine inspector, Fort Smith	$3,000
Federal-State Employment Service:	
T. A. Wilson, Federal director for State, Little Rock	1
California.	
Department of labor and industrial relations:	
Will J. French, chairman	(2)
Simon J. Lubin	(2)
Walter G. Mathewson	(2)
Mrs. Katherine Philips Edson, secretary	(2)
Bureau of labor statistics—	
Walter G. Mathewson, commissioner	4,000
Public employment bureaus—	
C. B. Sexton, director	2,700
Industrial accident commission—	
Will J. French, chairman	5,000
John A. McGilvray	5,000
John W. Carrigan	5,000
H. L. White, secretary	3,600
H. M. Wolflin, superintendent of safety	5,000
M. R. Gibbons, medical director	[3] 3,600
W. H. Pillsbury, attorney	4,000
F. B. Lord, manager, compensation department	3,600
State compensation insurance fund—	
R. W. Pendegast, manager	6,000
Industrial welfare commission—	
A. B. C. Dohrmann, chairman	[4] 10
Walter G. Mathewson	[4] 10
Henry W. Louis	[4] 10
Paul A. Sinsheimer	[4] 10
Mrs. Katherine Philips Edson, executive commissioner	[4] 10
Commission of immigration and housing—	
Simon J. Lubin, president	(5)
Most Rev. E. J. Hanna, D. D., vice president	(5)
J. H. McBride, M. D	(5)
R. W. Kearney, attorney and executive officer	4,000
Address of department: State Building, Civic Center, San Francisco.	
United States Employment Service:	
Walter G. Mathewson, Federal director for State, State Building, Civic Center, San Francisco	1
Colorado.	
Bureau of labor statistics:	
Carl S. Milliken, secretary of state and ex officio labor commissioner	.....
Carl DeLochte, deputy State labor commissioner and chief factory inspector	2,500
Address of bureau: Denver.	

[2] No salary. [3] Part time. [4] Per diem and traveling expenses. [5] Traveling expenses.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Colorado—Concluded.	
Industrial commission:	
William I. Reilly, chairman	$4,000
Thomas Annear	4,000
Joseph C. Bell	4,000
H. E. Curran, secretary	3,000
William F. Mowry, chief of claim department	3,000
State compensation insurance fund—	
Thomas P. Kearney, manager	3,000
Minimum wage commission—	
(According to an act passed by the 1917 legislature and effective July 20, 1917, the State industrial commission performs the duties of the minimum wage commission.)	
Address of commission: State capitol building, Denver.	
Connecticut.	
Department of labor and factory inspection:	
Harry E. McKenzie, commissioner, Hartford	3,500
State employment offices—	
Harry E. McKenzie, commissioner, Hartford	
Board of compensation commissioners:	
Frederic M. Williams, chairman, room 4, county courthouse, Waterbury	4,500
George E. Beers, 42 Church Street, New Haven	4,500
Edward T. Buckingham, 1024 Main Street, Bridgeport	4,500
George B. Chandler, 54 Church Street, Hartford	4,500
Dr. James J. Donohue, Central Building, Norwich	4,500
State board of mediation and arbitration:	
Edward W. Broder, Hartford	[2]
George L. Fox, New Haven	[2]
Patrick F. O'Mara, New Haven	[2]
United States Employment Service:	
Wm. S. Hyde, Federal director for State, Hartford	1
Delaware.	
Labor commission:	
George B. Miller, chairman	[2]
John H. Hickey	[2]
Thomas C. Frame, jr	[2]
George A. Hill	[2]
Miss Helen S. Garrett	[2]
Miss Elizabeth D. Hanson, secretary	100
Address of commission: Wilmington.	
Child-labor division—	
Charles A. Hagner, chief, Industrial Trust Building, Wilmington	2,100
Women's labor division—	
Miss Elizabeth D. Hanson, assistant, Industrial Trust Building, Wilmington	1,500
Inspector of canneries—	
Dr. William R. Messick, Lewes	[6] 1,000
Industrial accident board:	
Volley M. Murray, president	2,500
Walter O. Stack	2,500
Robert K. Jones	2,500
Charles H. Grantland, secretary	2,500
Address of board: Statehouse, Dover, and Ford Building, Wilmington.	
Florida.	
State labor inspector:	
Lewis W. Zim, St. Augustine	1,800

[2] No salary.

[6] And $500 for upkeep of automobile.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Georgia.	
Department of commerce and labor:	
H. M. Stanley, commissioner	$3,600
I. L. Griffin, factory inspector	1,200
Address of department: Atlanta.	
Industrial commission:	
H. M. Stanley, chairman	1,200
George M. Napier, attorney general (ex officio)	.....
S. J. Slate, representing employers	4,000
L. J. Kilburn, representing employees	4,000
Address of commission: Atlanta.	
United States Employment Service:	
H. M. Stanley, Federal director for State, 318 State Capitol, Atlanta	1
Hawaii.	
CITY AND COUNTY OF HONOLULU.	
Industrial accident board:	
F. E. Steere, chairman	(7)
A. J. Campbell	(7)
A. J. Wirtz	(7)
M. MacIntyre	(7)
H. W. Laws	(7)
F. Mason, inspector	(7)
A. W. Nexsen, secretary	(7)
Address of board: 314–317 James Campbell Building, Honolulu.	
COUNTY OF MAUI.	
Industrial accident board:	
George Freeland, chairman, Lahaina, Maui	(2)
J. H. Gray, Wailuku, Maui	(2)
Dan T. Carey, Wailuku, Maui	(2)
Ralph H. Wilson, Wailuku, Maui	(2)
C. C. Conradt, Wailuku, Maui	(2)
Mrs. Frances S. Wadsworth, inspector and secretary, Wailuku, Maui	[8] 150
COUNTY OF HAWAII.	
Industrial accident board:	
W. J. Stone, chairman	(2)
Otto Rose	(2)
Bryon K. Baird	(2)
James Webster	(2)
Dr. H. B. Elliot	(2)
J. W. Bains, secretary	.....
Address of board: Hilo.	
COUNTY OF KAUAI.	
Industrial accident board:	
J. M. Lydgate, chairman, Lihue	(7)
Idaho.	
Industrial accident board:	
Lawrence E. Worstell, chairman	2,700
C. E. Duffy	2,700
G. W. Suppiger	2,700
John D. Case, secretary	2,100
Address of board: Boise.	
State insurance fund:	
W. D. Yager, St. Anthony	3,000

[2] No salary.
[7] No salary, but allowed necessary traveling expenses.
[8] Per month, with necessary traveling expenses.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Illinois.	
Department of labor:	
George B. Arnold, director, State Capitol, Springfield	$5,000
Division of factory inspection—	
R. L. Dye, chief inspector, 1543 Transportation Building, Chicago	3,000
Division of free employment offices—	
C. M. Crayton, State Capitol, Springfield	3,000
Division of private employment agencies—	
John J. McKenna, chief inspector, 608 South Dearborn Street, Chicago	
General advisory board—	
Prof. F. S. Deibler, chairman, Evanston	
Dr. A. H. R. Atwood, secretary (representing employers), Chicago	
Oscar G. Mayer (representing employees)	
John H. Walker (representing employees)	
——— ——— (vacancy), (representing employees)	
R. D. Cahn, statistician in charge, 116 North Dearborn Street, Chicago	
Industrial commission—	
Earnest Whitall, chairman	5,000
C. H. Kunneman (representing employers)	5,000
Wm. N. Scanlan (representing employees)	5,000
John B. French (representing employers)	5,000
——— ——— (vacancy), (representing employees)	5,000
Walter F. Rohm, secretary	3,300
Dr. S. W. Latham, medical director	(9)
Address of commission: 303-318 City Hall Square Building, Chicago.	
United States Employment Service:	
Dr. A. H. R. Atwood, Federal director for State, Chicago	1,800
Indiana.	
Industrial board:	
Samuel R. Artman, chairman	4,000
——— ——— (vacancy)	4,000
Charles Fox	4,000
Thomas A. Riley	4,000
Thomas Roberts	4,000
Leland K. Fishback, secretary	2,500
Address of board: Room 431, Statehouse, Indianapolis.	
Department of factories, buildings, and workshops—	
James E. Reagin, chief inspector, room 413, Statehouse, Indianapolis	2,000
Department of boilers—	
B. W. Bissell, chief inspector (also locomotive boiler inspector for the Public Service Commission), room 413, Statehouse, Indianapolis	2,500
Department of mines and mining—	
Cairy Littlejohn, chief inspector, room 413, Statehouse, Indianapolis	2,500
Department of women and children—	
Mrs. Arthur T. Cox, director, room 416, Statehouse, Indianapolis	2,000
United States Employment Service:	
Thomas A. Riley, Federal State director, 412 Statehouse, Indianapolis	1,800
Iowa.	
Bureau of labor statistics:	
A. L. Urick, commissioner	3,000
Free employment bureau—	
George B. Albert, clerk	1,800
Address of bureau; Des Moines.	

[9] General fund for medical assistance, $10,000.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Iowa—Concluded.	
Workmen's compensation service:	
A. B. Funk, industrial commissioner	$3,600
Ralph Young, deputy commissioner	2,700
Ray M. Spangler, secretary	2,000
Dr. Oliver J. Fay, medical counsel	[3] 1,200
Address of service: Statehouse, Des Moines.	
United States Employment Service:	
A. L. Urick, Federal director for State, 123 Courthouse, Des Moines	1
Kansas.	
Court of industrial relations:	
James A. McDermott, presiding judge	4,500
Judge J. H. Crawford	4,500
Judge Henderson S. Martin	4,500
Will F. Wilkerson, clerk	2,400
Address: Statehouse, Topeka.	
Free employment office, Statehouse, Topeka.	
Mine inspection department—	
James Sherwood, chief mine inspector, Statehouse, Topeka	2,700
Industrial welfare commission—	
Miss Alice McFarland, director, women's work, Topeka	2,000
United States Employment Service:	
J. H. Crawford, Federal director for State, Statehouse, Topeka	1
Kentucky.	
Department of agriculture, labor, and statistics:	
W. C. Hanna, commissioner, Frankfort	4,000
T. R. Stults, State labor inspector, Columbia	1,200
Mrs. Nick Denunzio, State labor woman inspector, 219 South Sixth Street, Louisville	1,200
Workmen's compensation board:	
Felix S. Dumas, chairman	3,500
Clyde R. Levi	3,500
Alvis S. Bennett	3,500
V. C. McDonald, secretary	2,500
Address of board: Frankfort.	
United States Employment Service:	
W. C. Hanna, Federal director for State, Frankfort	1
Louisiana.	
Bureau of labor and industrial statistics:	
Frank E. Wood, commissioner, suite 626, Maison Blanche Annex, New Orleans	[10] 3,000
Office of factory inspector of Orleans Parish:	
Carmelite Janvier, room 28, City Hall, New Orleans	1,200
United States Employment Service:	
Frank E. Wood, Federal director for State, New Orleans	.....
Maine.	
Department of labor and industry:	
Roscoe A. Eddy, commissioner, Statehouse, Augusta	2,000
Industrial accident commission:	
Arthur L. Thayer, chairman	3,500
Donald D. Garcelon, associate legal member	3,000
Wilbur D. Spencer (ex officio), insurance commissioner	500
Roscoe A. Eddy (ex officio), labor commissioner	1,000
Annie M. Chase, clerk	1,500
Address of commission: Augusta.	

[3] Part time.

[10] And traveling expenses.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Maine—Concluded.	
State board of arbitration and conciliation:	
Frank H. Ingraham, chairman, Rockland	[4] $5
John S. Harlow, Dixfield	[4] 5
William T. Hinckley, secretary, 5 Broadway, Bangor	[4] 5
Maryland.	
Commissioner of labor and statistics:	
J. Knox Insley, M. D., commissioner, St. Paul and Saratoga Streets, Baltimore	3,000
State industrial accident commission:	
Robert H. Carr, chairman	6,000
Joseph B. Harrington	5,000
Geo. Louis Eppler	5,000
A. E. Brown, secretary	3,000
Miss R. O. Harrison, director of claims	2,500
Dr. Robert P. Bay, chief medical examiner	[3] 2,000
State accident fund—	
James E. Green, superintendent	3,000
Address of commission: 741 Equitable Building, Baltimore.	
United States Employment Service:	
H. F. Baker, Federal director for State, Hoen Building, Baltimore	1
Massachusetts.	
Department of labor and industries:	
E. Leroy Sweetser, commissioner	7,500
Miss Ethel M. Johnson, assistant commissioner	3,000
Associate commissioners (exercising also the functions formerly vested in the board of conciliation and arbitration and the minimum wage commission):	
Edward Fisher, chairman	4,000
Herbert P. Wasgatt	3,000
Samuel Ross	3,000
Division of industrial safety—	
John P. Meade, director	3,000
Division of statistics—	
Roswell F. Phelps, director	3,000
Division of standards—	
Francis Meredith, director	3,000
Address of department: Room 473, Statehouse, Boston.	
Industrial accident board:	
William W. Kennard, chairman	6,000
Frank J. Donahue	5,500
David T. Dickinson	5,500
Joseph A. Parks	5,500
Chester E. Gleason	5,500
John H. Cogswell	5,500
Robert E. Grandfield, secretary	5,000
Francis D. Donoghue, M. D., medical adviser	4,500
Address of board: Room 272, Statehouse, Boston.	
United States Employment Service:	
E. Leroy Sweetser, Federal director for State, 473 Statehouse, Boston	1

[3] Part time. [4] Per diem and traveling expenses.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Michigan.	
Department of labor and industry:	
James A. Kennedy, chairman	$4,000
Thomas B. Gloster	4,000
Carl Young	4,000
Fred S. Johnson, secretary	3,500
Address of department: Lansing.	
State accident fund:	
William T. Shaw, manager, Lansing	5,000
United States Employment Service:	
Perry J. Ward, Federal director for State, 306 Owen Building, Detroit	900
Minnesota.	
Industrial commission:	
Henry McColl, chairman	4,500
J. D. Williams	4,500
F. A. Duxbury	4,500
John P. Gardiner, secretary	3,500
Address of commission: St. Paul.	
Division of workmen's compensation—	
F. E. Hoffman, chief, St. Paul	2,700
Division of accident prevention—	
David R. Henderson, chief, Minneapolis	2,400
Division of boiler inspection—	
George Wilcox, chief, Minneapolis	2,400
Division of women and children—	
Louise Schutz, superintendent, St. Paul	2,100
United States Employment Service:	
J. D. Williams, Federal director for State, Minneapolis.	
Mississippi.	
Department of State factory inspection:	
A. B. Hobbs, factory inspector, Jackson	[11] 2,400
Missouri.	
Bureau of labor statistics:	
William H. Lewis, commissioner, Jefferson City	3,500
Department of industrial inspection—	
Mrs. Alice Curtice Moyer-Wing, Fullerton Building, St. Louis	2,500
United States Employment Service:	
Heber Nations, Federal director for State, 11 North Seventh Street, St. Louis	1
Montana.	
Department of agriculture, labor, and industry:	
Chester C. Davis, commissioner, Helena	5,000
Industrial accident board:	
Jerome G. Locke, chairman	5,000
G. P. Porter, State auditor and (ex officio) commissioner of insurance	.....
Chester C. Davis, commissioner of agriculture, labor and industry, and (ex officio) treasurer of board	.....
W. B. McLaughlin, secretary	2,700
Thomas C. Patrick, chief accountant	2,100
Address of board: Helena.	

[11] Annual traveling expense of factory inspector, $1,000.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Montana—Concluded.	
Industrial accident board—Concluded.	
Bureau of safety inspection—	
J. R. Hartley, boiler and safety inspector, Billings	$2,700
J. H. Bondy, boiler and safety inspector, Great Falls	2,700
Floyd F. Johnson, boiler and safety inspector, Butte	2,700
John T. Taylor, boiler and safety inspector, Helena	2,700
William Maxwell, quartz mine and safety inspector, Butte	2,700
George N. Griffin, coal mine and safety inspector, Helena	2,700
United States Employment Service:	
C. D. Greenfield, jr., Federal director for State, department of agriculture, labor and industry, Helena	1
Nebraska.	
Department of labor:	
Frank A. Kennedy, secretary of labor and compensation commissioner, State Capitol, Lincoln	5,000
Bureau of child welfare:	
Emily P. Hornberger, chief, Lincoln	2,500
United States Employment Service:	
Luther B. Frye, Federal director for State, State Capitol, Lincoln	1
Nevada.	
Office of labor commissioner:	
Frank W. Ingram, labor commissioner, Carson City	1,500
Industrial commission:	
Dan J. Sullivan, chairman	4,000
John M. Gray	[3] 1,800
Frank W. Ingram	[3] 1,800
Dr. Donald Maclean, chief medical adviser	[3] 1,800
Address of commission: Carson City.	
Inspector of mines:	
A. J. Stinson, Carson City	3,600
United States Employment Service:	
Frank W. Ingram, Federal director for State	1
New Hampshire.	
Bureau of labor:	
John S. B. Davie, commissioner, Concord	2,750
Bion L. Nutting, factory inspector, Concord	2,200
Herbert O. Prime, factory inspector, Laconia	2,200
Mary R. Chagnon, factory inspector, Manchester	1,800
State board of conciliation and arbitration:	
Dr. A. W. Mitchell (representing public), Epping	[12] 8
George A. Tenney (representing manufacturers), Claremont	[12] 8
Michael F. Connolly (respresenting labor), Manchester	[12] 8
New Jersey.	
Department of labor:	
——— ——— (vacancy), commissioner	6,000
Bureau of general and structural inspection—	
Charles H. Weeks, deputy commissioner	4,500
Bureau of hygiene, sanitation, and mine inspection—	
John Roach, deputy commissioner	4,500
Bureau of electrical and mechanical equipment—	
Rowland H. Leveridge, chief	3,600
Bureau of industrial statistics—	
Lillian Erskine, chief	2,760
Bureau of engineers' license, steam roller, and refrigerating plant inspection—	
Joseph F. Scott, chief	3,600

[3] Part time.
[12] Per diem and necessary expense when actually engaged in work of the board.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
New Jersey—Concluded.	
Department of labor—Concluded.	
Bureau of workmen's compensation—	
——— ——— (vacancy), commissioner	$1,500
William E. Stubbs, deputy commissioner and secretary	3,900
Harry J. Goas, deputy commissioner	3,900
James O. Boyd, deputy commissioner	3,900
Charles E. Corbin, deputy commissioner	3,900
Bureau of employment—	
Russell J. Eldridge, director	2,500
Address of department: State Capitol, Trenton.	
United States Employment Service:	
——— ——— (vacancy).	
New Mexico.	
Mine inspector:	
W. W. Risdon, Albuquerque	[13] 2,400
New York.	
Department of labor:	
Bernard L. Shientag, industrial commissioner	8,000
Richard J. Cullen, deputy commissioner	7,000
Address of department, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.	
Industrial board—	
John D. Higgins, chairman	8,000
Frances Perkins	8,000
Richard H. Curran	8,000
Sara McPike, secretary	4,500
Address of board: 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.	
Bureau of workmen's compensation—	
J. N. Steinacher, director	5,000
Dr. Raphael Lewy, chief medical examiner	6,000
Address of bureau: 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.	
State insurance fund—	
Leonard W. Hatch, manager, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York	8,000
Division of employment—	
Richard A. Flinn, chief, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York.	4,250
Bureau of statistics and information—	
E. B. Patton, chief statistician, Albany	4,500
Bureau of industrial relations—	
Seaman F. Northrup, director, Albany	5,000
Division of aliens—	
Mrs. Marion K. Clark, chief, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York	3,500
Bureau of inspection—	
James L. Gernon, director, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York	6,000
Bureau of women in industry—	
Miss Nelle Swartz, chief, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York	3,000
Bureau of industrial code—	
Thomas C. Eipper, industrial code referee, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York	4,000
United States Employment Service:	
Bernard L. Shientag, Federal director for State, 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York	1

[13] And actual and necessary transportation and traveling expenses.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
North Carolina.	
Department of labor and printing:	
M. L. Shipman, commissioner, Raleigh	$4,500
United States Employment Service:	
M. L. Shipman, Federal director for State, Raleigh	1
North Dakota.	
Department of agriculture and labor:	
Joseph A. Kitchen, commissioner, Bismarck	3,000
Workmen's compensation bureau:	
Joseph A. Kitchen, chairman	(2)
S. S. McDonald	2,500
S. A. Olsness (ex officio)	.....
G. N. Livdahl	2,500
Philip Elliott	2,500
C. A. Marr, secretary	2,400
Address of bureau: Bismarck.	
Minimum wage commission:	
Dorothy Blanding, secretary, Bismarck	1,800
State-Federal Employment Service:	
Joseph A. Kitchen, Federal director for State, Bismarck	1
Ohio.	
Department of industrial relations:	
H. R. Witter, director	6,500
Industrial commission—	
T. J. Duffy, chairman	5,000
J. D. Clark	5,000
Rose Moriarty	5,000
H. R. Witter, secretary	.....
Division of workmen's compensation—	
J. H. Lamneck, assistant director, department of industrial relations, chief	3,600
H. L. Rebrassier, supervisor of claims	2,600
Evan I. Evans, supervisor of actuarial division	3,000
W. A. Harman, auditor and statistician	3,000
Dr. T. R. Fletcher, chief medical examiner	4,000
Division of labor statistics (including free employment service)—	
O. W. Brach, chief	3,000
Division of factory inspection—	
T. P. Kearns, chief	3,600
Division of boiler inspection and examiner of steam engineers—	
C. O. Myers, chief	3,600
Division of mines—	
Jerome Watson, chief	3,600
Address of department: Columbus.	
United States Employment Service:	
O. W. Brach, Federal director for State, Columbus	1
Oklahoma.	
Department of labor:	
Claude E. Connally, commissioner, Oklahoma City	2,000
Board of arbitration and conciliation:	
Claude E. Connally, chairman, Oklahoma City	
W. A. Murphy, assistant commissioner of labor, secretary, Oklahoma City	1,800
O. L. Martin, Hanna	(14)
John Cooper, Maysville	(14)
Bert M. Draper, Claremore	(14)
L. N. Trieb, Sapulpa	(14)
James Templeton, Hartshorne	(14)
Orlando B. Swain, Okmulgee	(14)

[2] No salary. [14] $5 per diem and necessary hotel and traveling expenses while on official duty.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Oklahoma—Concluded.	
Industrial commission:	
Harry C. Myers, chairman	$3,000
Mrs. F. L. Roblin	3,000
Edgar Fenton	3,000
E. F. Riggins, secretary	1,800
Address of commission: State capitol, Oklahoma City.	
United States Employment Service:	
Claude E. Connally, Federal director for State, State capitol, Oklahoma City	1
Oregon.	
Bureau of labor:	
C. H. Gram, commissioner and factory inspector, Salem	3,000
W. H. Fitzgerald, deputy commissioner, 501 Courthouse, Portland.	2,400
Board of inspectors of child labor:	
Stephen G. Smith, chairman, 65–67 Broadway, Portland	[2]
Mrs. Sarah A. Evans, Portland	[2]
Miss Pauline Kline, Corvallis	[2]
Mrs. A. M. Grilley, Portland	[2]
Mrs. Millie R. Trumbull, secretary, 646–648 Courthouse, Portland.	[15] 125
Industrial welfare commission:	
W. L. Brewster, chairman	[2]
Mrs. Eunice L. Rubottom	[2]
Amedee M. Smith	[2]
Mrs. Millie R. Trumbull, secretary and inspector	[3] 50
Address of commission: 646–648 Courthouse, Portland.	
State industrial accident commission:	
J. W. Ferguson, chairman	3,600
D. A. Elkins	3,600
William A. Marshall	3,600
Dr. F. H. Thompson, medical adviser	3,000
Address of commission: Salem.	
State board of conciliation:	
William F. Woodward, chairman, Wood-Lark Building, Portland	[12] 5
John K. Flynn	[12] 5
Otto R. Hartwig, secretary, 413 Stock Exchange Building, Portland	[12] 5
United States Employment Service:	
W. H. Fitzgerald, Federal director and zone clearance officer, 501 Courthouse, Portland	1
Pennsylvania.	
Department of labor and industry:	
Royal Meeker, secretary, Keystone Building, Harrisburg	10,000
Industrial board—	
Royal Meeker, chairman	
Mrs. Samuel Semple	[16] 10
Otto T. Mallery	[16] 10
James C. Cronin	[16] 10
Harry A. Nye	[16] 10
Fred J. Hartman, secretary	4,000
Address of board: Keystone Building, Harrisburg.	
Bureau of inspection—	
John H. Walker, chief, Keystone Building, Harrisburg	5,000

[2] No salary.
[3] Part time.
[12] Per diem and necessary expenses when actually engaged in work of the board.
[15] Per month.
[16] Per day.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Pennsylvania—Concluded.	
Department of labor and industry—Concluded.	
Division of hygiene and engineering—	
——— ——— (vacancy), chief, Third and North Streets, Harrisburg	$5,000
Bureau of workmen's compensation—	
W. H. Horner, director, Keystone Building, Harrisburg	5,000
Bureau of mediation and arbitration—	
William J. Tracy, chief, Keystone Building, Harrisburg	4,000
Bureau of employment—	
R. J. Peters, director, Third and North Streets, Harrisburg	5,000
Bureau of rehabilitation—	
S. S. Riddle, chief, Keystone Building, Harrisburg	5,000
Workmen's compensation board:	
Paul W. Houck, chairman	9,000
Benjamin Jarrett	8,500
——— ——— (vacancy)	8,500
Lee Solomon, secretary	5,000
Address of board: Keystone Building, Harrisburg.	
State workmen's insurance fund:	
William J. Roney, manager, Harrisburg	7,500
United States Employment Service:	
Robert J. Peters, Federal director for State, Harrisburg	1
Philippine Islands.	
Bureau of labor (under department of commerce and communications):	
Hermenegildo Gruz, acting director, Manila	2,500
Porto Rico.	
Department of agriculture and labor:	
Leopoldo Feliu, commissioner	5,000
Bureau of labor—	
Antonio Arroyo, chief	2,777.25
Address of department: San Juan.	
Workmen's relief commission:	
L. Santiago Carmona, chairman, attorney at law	3,500
Luis Villaronga, permanent commissioner	2,600
José Coll Vidal	[17] 10
Joaquin A. Becerril	[17] 10
P. Rivera Martinez	[17] 10
Address of commission: San Juan.	
Rhode Island.	
Bureau of labor:	
George H. Webb, commissioner, Statehouse, Providence	5,000
Office of factory inspectors:	
J. Ellery Hudson, chief inspector, Statehouse, Providence	3,000
Board of labor (for the adjustment of labor disputes):	
George H. Webb, commissioner of labor, chairman	[2]
Edwin O. Chase (representing employers)	[2]
William C. Fisher (representing employers)	[2]
Albert E. Hohler (representing employees)	[2]
John H. Powers (representing employees)	[2]
Christopher M. Dunn, deputy commissioner of labor, secretary	2,300
Address of board: Providence.	
United States Employment Service:	
George H. Webb, Federal director for State, Statehouse, Providence	1

[2] No salary. [17] Per session.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
South Carolina.	
Department of agriculture, commerce, and industries:	
B. Harris, commissioner	$2,500
A. H. Gibert, chief inspector	[10] 2,400
Address of department: Columbia.	
Board of conciliation and arbitration:	
B. E. Geer, chairman, Greenville	[18] 10
W. H. McNairy, Chester	[18] 10
H. E. Thompson, Batesburg	[18] 10
United States Employment Service:	
W. A. Coleman, Federal director for State, Columbia	1
South Dakota.	
Office of industrial commissioner: [19]	
Irwin D. Aldrich, ex officio industrial commissioner	.....
S. A. Travis, deputy commissioner	2,400
Department of immigration:	
Irwin D. Aldrich, commissioner	3,600
United States Employment Service:	
Charles McCaffree, Federal director for State, Sioux Falls	1
Tennessee.	
Department of labor:	
Ed. M. Gillenwaters, commissioner, Nashville	4,000
Ben Feldman, secretary, Nashville	2,400
Division of factory inspection—	
M. F. Nicholson, chief inspector, Nashville	2,500
Division of mines—	
O. P. Pile, chief inspector, Cowan	2,500
Division of hotel inspection—	
Sam I. Bolton, inspector, Nashville	1,800
Division of workmen's compensation—	
Harry L. Nelson, superintendent, 2211 Pierce Avenue, Nashville	2,500
United States Employment Service:	
J. A. Porter, special agent, Knoxville	1
Texas.	
Bureau of labor statistics:	
Joseph S. Myers, commissioner	3,000
C. E. Mick, statistician and secretary	1,800
Address of bureau: Austin.	
Industrial accident board:	
J. H. Fowler, chairman	4,500
J. M. Pittillo	4,000
J. E. Proctor	4,000
E. B. Barnes, secretary	2,750
Address of board: Austin.	
United States Employment Service:	
C. W. Woodman, special agent, Fort Worth	2,100
Utah.	
Industrial commission:	
O. F. McShane, chairman	4,000
Wm. M. Knerr	4,000
Nephi L. Morris	4,000
Carolyn I. Smith, secretary	2,100
State insurance fund—	
C. A. Caine, manager	3,300
Address of commission: State Capitol, Salt Lake City.	

[10] And traveling expenses.
[18] Per day when in attendance, and traveling expenses.
[19] Administers workmen's compensation act.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Vermont.	
Office of commissioner of industries:	
John S. Buttles, commissioner, Montpelier	$3,000
State board of conciliation and arbitration:	
Henry C. Brislin, Rutland	(2)
Ashley J. Goss, Danville	(2)
Hugh J. M. Jones, Montpelier	(2)
Virginia.	
Bureau of labor and industrial statistics:	
John Hopkins Hall, jr., commissioner	3,600
Division of women and children—	
Miss Emma F. Ward, director	1,800
Address of bureau: Richmond.	
Industrial commission:	
C. G. Kizer, chairman	4,000
Richard F. Beirne	4,000
Bolling H. Handy	4,000
A. C. Smith, secretary	3,000
Address of commission: Box 1794, Richmond.	
United States Employment Service:	
John Hopkins Hall, jr., Federal director for State, State Capitol, Richmond	1
Washington.	
Department of labor and industries:	
Edward Clifford, director	6,000
E. S. Gill, supervisor of industrial insurance and medical aid	4,200
H. L. Hughes, supervisor of safety	4,200
Mrs. Delphine M. Johnson, supervisor of women in industry	3,000
F. A. Bird, M. D., chief medical adviser	6,000
F. W. Harris, industrial statistician and supervisor of industrial aid to the adult blind	2,700
Frances L. Whiting, secretary	.....
Industrial welfare committee—	
Edward Clifford, chairman, director of labor and industries	(2)
E. S. Gill, supervisor of industrial insurance and medical aid	(2)
F. W. Harris, industrial statistician	(2)
Mrs. Delphine M. Johnson, executive secretary, supervisor of women in industry	(2)
Address of department: Olympia.	
United States Employment Service:	
William C. Carpenter, Federal director for State, 326 Federal Building, Spokane	2,400
West Virginia.	
Bureau of labor:	
George F. Daugherty, commissioner, Charleston	4,000
State compensation commissioner:	
Lee Ott, commissioner	6,000
F. J. McAndrews, secretary	[15] 310
J. W. Smiley, actuary	[15] 335
R. H. Walker, chief medical examiner	[15] 210
Address: Charleston.	
United States Employment Service:	
G. F. Daugherty, Federal director for State, Charleston	1

[2] No salary.

[15] Per month.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Wisconsin.	
Industrial commission:	
Fred M. Wilcox, chairman	$5,000
R. G. Knutson	5,000
L. A. Tarrell	5,000
A. J. Altmeyer, secretary	3,750
Safety and sanitation department—	
R. McA. Keown, engineer	4,500
Workmen's compensation department—	
F. T. McCormick, chief examiner	3,900
Employment department—	
R. G. Knutson, director, ex officio	.....
Apprenticeship department—	
Walter F. Simon, supervisor	2,400
Women's department—	
Miss Maud Swett, director, room 809, Manufacturers' Home Building, Milwaukee	2,850
Child labor department—	
Taylor Frye, director	3,200
Statistical department—	
Orrin A. Fried, statistician	3,500
Address of commission: Madison.	
United States Employment Service:	
R. G. Knutson, Federal director for State, State Capitol, Madison	1
Wyoming.	
Office of commissioner of labor and statistics:	
Frank Clark, commissioner, Capitol Building, Cheyenne	3,000
Workmen's compensation department (under State treasurer's office):	
J. M. Snyder, State treasurer	3,000
C. B. Morgan, deputy treasurer	2,700
Arthur Calverley, assistant deputy and department manager	2,400
Address of department: Cheyenne.	
United States Employment Service:	
Frank Clark, Federal director for State, Cheyenne	1
ARGENTINA.	
Ministry of the Interior (address, Buenos Aires):	
National labor department—	
Dr. A. M. Unsain, president	.....
AUSTRALIA.	
Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics [20] (address, Melbourne):	
C. H. Wickens, Commonwealth statistician	.....
AUSTRIA.	
Federal Statistical Office (address, Vienna):	
Labor statistics division—	
Dr. Walter Schiff, vice president	.....
BELGIUM.	
Ministry of Industry and Labor (address, 12 Rue Lambermont, Brussels):	
Labor Office—	
A. Julin, director general	.....
Inspectorate of labor and of dangerous, unhealthy, and noxious trades—	
J. Brughmans, first inspector general	.....

[20] Publishes annual reports on labor and industrial statistics.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
BOLIVIA.	
Ministry of Promotion (address, La Paz):	
BRAZIL.	
Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce[21] (address, Rio de Janeiro):	
Dr. Miguel Calmon du Pin e Almeida, minister	.....
BULGARIA.	
Ministry of Commerce, Industry, and Labor (address, Rue Alabinska 48, Sofia):	
Labor section—	
Dimitri Nikoloff, chief	.....
CANADA.	
Department of Labor:	
Hon. James Murdock, minister	$10,000
F. A. Acland, deputy minister	6,000
Gerald H. Brown, assistant deputy minister	4,500
R. A. Rigg, director of employment service	4,000
A. W. Crawford, director of technical education	3,900
F. W. Giddens, secretary	3,240
Address of department: Ottawa, Ontario.	
Alberta.	
Bureau of labor:	
W. Smitten, commissioner	3,000
F. W. Hobson, chief boiler inspector	2,700
H. M. Bishop, chief factory inspector	2,100
John T. Stirling, chief mine inspector	3,600
Address of bureau: Edmonton.	
Government employment bureau:	
William Carnill, superintendent, Calgary	[15] 135
W. G. Paterson, superintendent, Edmonton	[15] 135
Thos. Longworth, superintendent, Lethbridge	[15] 135
J. W. Wright, superintendent, Medicine Hat	[15] 135
A. A. Colquhoun, superintendent, Drumheller	[15] 125
Workmen's compensation board:	
John T. Stirling, chairman	[22] 250
Walter F. McNeil	[22] 500
James A. Kinney	[15] 416.66
Frederick D. Noble, secretary	[15] 275
Address of board: Edmonton.	
British Columbia.	
Department of labor:	
Hon. A. M. Manson, minister, Victoria	[23] 7,500
J. D. McNiven, deputy minister, Victoria	3,720
Robert J. Stewart, chief factories inspector, Vancouver	2,700
Employment service—	
J. H. McVety, general superintendent, Vancouver	2,700
Minimum wage board—	
J. D. McNiven, deputy minister of labor, chairman	[2]
Mrs. Helen G. McGill	[2]
Thomas Mathews	[2]
Miss Mabel Agnes Cameron, secretary	1,800
Address of board: Parliament Building, Victoria.	

[2] No salary.
[15] Per month.
[21] The formation of a national labor department was authorized by decree of Oct. 16, 1918, but this measure has not yet been carried out, as the Federal Government wishes to make certain changes in it.
[22] Per month, part time.
[23] For dual position as attorney general and minister of labor.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
British Columbia—Concluded.	
Workmen's compensation board:	
E. S. H. Winn, chairman	[24] $6,500
Parker Williams	5,000
Hugh Gilmore	5,000
F. W. Hinsdale, secretary	4,200
Address of board: Board of Trade Building, Vancouver.	
Manitoba.	
Bureau of labor:	
Hon. W. R. Clubb, minister of public works	6,000
Edward McGrath, secretary	3,480
Arthur MacNamara, chief inspector	3,480
Fair wage board—	
D. L. McLean, deputy minister of public works, chairman	[2]
A. A. Young	[25] 10
E. Claydon	[25] 10
Walter Owens	[25] 10
C. Hardin	[25] 10
Minimum wage board—	
Geo. N. Jackson, chairman	[25] 10
Mrs. Edna M. Nash	[25] 10
James Winning	[25] 10
Address of bureau: 332 Parliament Building, Winnipeg.	
Workmen's compensation board:	
H. G. Wilson, commissioner	6,000
R. S. Ward	[26] 1,000
A. R. D. Patterson	[26] 1,000
N. Fletcher, secretary	.....
Address of board: Winnipeg.	
New Brunswick.	
Workmen's compensation board:	
J. A. Sinclair, chairman	4,500
F. C. Robinson	3,500
J. L. Sugrue	3,500
Address of board: Post office box 1422, St. John.	
Inspection of factories and hotels:	
John Kenney, St. John	1,500
Nova Scotia.	
Department of public works and mines:	
Hon. E. H. Armstrong, minister	6,000
Hiram Donkin, deputy minister	6,000
Philip Ring, factory inspector	1,900
Address of department: Halifax.	
Workmen's compensation board:	
V. J. Paton, K. C., chairman	5,000
Fred W. Armstrong, vice chairman	5,000
John T. Joy	4,500
Address of board: Halifax.	
Employment service:	
C. J. Cotter, superintendent, men's division, Halifax	1,800
Miss L. M. King, superintendent, women's division, Halifax	1,020

[2] No salary.
[24] $1,000 additional for administering mothers' pension act.
[25] For each meeting.
[26] Part time. Act provides that for meetings in excess of 50 attended by directors in any year the lieutenant governor in council may authorize an additional allowance of $15 per director for each such additional meeting.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
Ontario.	
Department of labor:	
Hon. W. R. Rollo, minister	$6,000
James H. H. Ballantyne, deputy minister	4,200
D. M. Medcalf, chief inspector of steam boilers	3,000
James T. Burke, chief inspector of factories, shops, and office buildings	3,000
J. M. Brown, chairman, stationary and hoisting engineers' board	2,700
Employment service—	
H. C. Hudson, general superintendent, Ontario offices	2,700
Address of department: Spadina House, Toronto.	
Minimum wage board:	
Dr. J. W. MacMillan, chairman	[27] 15
H. G. Fester	[27] 10
Mrs. Lydia Parsons	[27] 10
Miss Margaret Stephens	[27] 10
R. A. Stapells	[27] 10
Address of board: Spadina House, Toronto.	
Workmen's compensation board:	
Samuel Price, chairman	10,000
Henry J. Halford, vice chairman	8,500
George A. Kingston, commissioner	7,500
N. B. Wormith, secretary	4,800
T. Norman Dean, statistician	4,550
F. W. Graham, claims officer	3,250
W. E. Struthers, medical officer	5,050
D. E. Bell, medical officer	4,550
J. M. Bremner, medical officer	4,000
Address of board: 66 Temperance Street, Toronto.	
Quebec.	
Department of public works and labor:	
Hon. Antonin Galipeault, minister, Quebec	.....
Louis Guyon, deputy minister, and chief inspector of industrial establishments and public buildings, 63 Notre Dame Street east, Montreal	4,000
Joseph Ainey, general superintendent, employment service, 63 Notre Dame Street east, Montreal	2,600
Alfred Robert, fair wages officer and deputy chief inspector, 63 Notre Dame Street east, Montreal	1,750
Felix Marois, registrar of board of conciliation and arbitration, Parliament Buildings, Quebec	1,600
Saskatchewan.	
Bureau of labor and industries:	
Thomas M. Molloy, commissioner	.....
T. Withy, chief factory inspector	.....
E. Pierce, mine inspector	.....
Government employment branch—	
G. E. Tomsett, general superintendent	.....
Address of bureau: Regina.	
Minimum wage board:	
W. F. Dunn, chairman, Moose Jaw	.....
Mrs. Austin Bothwell, Regina	.....
J. A. Regan	.....
Thomas M. Molloy, commissioner of labor, secretary, Regina	.....

[27] Per diem when transacting business of the board.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
CHILE.	
Ministry of Industry and Public Works (address, Santiago):	
Labor office—	
Sr. Moisés Poblete Troncoso, director	
CHINA.	
A department of labor is under consideration, but the organization has not progressed sufficiently at this time to give any details.	
COLOMBIA.	
Ministry of Public Works (address, Bogota):	
Dr. Aquilino Villegas, minister	
COSTA RICA.	
Ministry of Public Works (address, San José):	
Narceso Blanco, minister	
CUBA.	
Secretariat of Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor (address, Habana):	
Immigration, land settlement, and labor section—	
Sr. Gustavo de Aranguren, chief	
CZECHOSLOVAKIA.	
Ministry of Social Welfare [28] (address, Valdstynska, 10, Prague, III):	
Central department—	
Dr. Jan Synáčák, chief	
Ministry of Public Works (address, Presslova, 6, Prague-Smichov):	
Section V [29]—	
Dr. J. Čížek, chief	
DENMARK.	
Ministry of the Interior (address, Slotsholmen, Copenhagen):	
J. A. O. Vater, director of labor	
Labor and factory inspection department—	
Jacob K. Lindberg, director	
Workmen's compensation board—	
Gustav Philipsen, president	
DUTCH INDIES.	
Department of Justice:	
Labor bureau—	
Dr. A. G. Vreede, director	
ECUADOR.	
Ministry of Public Instruction (address, Quito):	
Department of labor—	
Pablo A. Váconez, minister	

[28] Handles labor relations at large.
[29] Labor questions relating to workers in mines; legislation; insurance statistics.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
ESTHONIA.	
Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare (address, Reval):	
Labor division—	
L. Veski, director	
FINLAND.	
Ministry of Social Affairs (address, Helsingfors):	
Department of labor and social welfare—	
Einar Böök, director	
FRANCE.	
Ministry of Labor (address, Rue de Grenelle, 127, Paris):	
M. Peyronnet, minister	
GERMANY.	
Ministry of Labor (address, Scharnhorststrasse, 35, Berlin N. W., 40):	
Dr. Brauns, minister	
GREAT BRITAIN.	
Ministry of Labor (address, Montagu House, Whitehall, London, S. W. 1):	
Rt. Hon. Sir C. A. Montague Barlow, K. B. E., LLD., M. P., minister	
GREECE.	
Ministry of National Economy (address, Rue Valoalitou, 3, Athens):	
Directorate of labor and social welfare—	
D. Totomis, director	
GUATEMALA.	
Ministry of Public Works (address, Guatemala):	
Dr. Rafael D. Ponciano, minister	
HAITI.	
Department of Public Works (address, Port au Prince):	
Charles Fombrun, minister	
HONDURAS.	
Ministry of the Interior (address, Tegucigalpa):	
Dr. L. A. Zuniga. minister	
HUNGARY.	
Ministry of Social Welfare and Labor (address, Kyralyi Palota, Budapest):	
Rev. Dr. Joseph Vass, minister	
INDIA.	
Department of Industries (address, Delhi):	
Labor bureau—	
A. G. Clow, I. C. S., controller	

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
ITALY.	
A new organization is under way, but details have not been received.	
JAPAN.	
Bureau of Social Affairs (address, Tokyo):	
Seiji Tsukamoto, commissioner	.....
Kasekichi Kawarada, director of the first division of the bureau [30]	.....
Kazutami Tago, director of the second division of the bureau [31]	.....
LATVIA.	
Department of Labor (address, Riga):	
J. Lorenz, minister	.....
LITHUANIA.	
Ministry of Foreign Affairs (address, Kannas):	
Ernest Galeanausks, minister	.....
LUXEMBURG.	
General Directorate of Agriculture, Industry, and Social Welfare (address, Arlon):	
Division of commerce, industry, and labor—	
Adolphe Scholtus, chief	.....
MEXICO.	
Department of Industry and Labor (address, Mexico City):	
Señor Alessio Robles, secretary	.....
NETHERLANDS.	
Ministry of Labor, Commerce, and Industry (address, Beznidenhout, The Hague):	
Labor division—	
Dr. J. Westhoff, chief	.....
Labor inspectorate—	
C. J. Ph. Zaalberg, director general	.....
NEW ZEALAND.	
Department of Labor (address, Wellington):	
The Hon. G. J. Anderson, minister	.....
NICARAGUA.	
Ministry of Public Works (address, Managua):	
Fernando Solorzano, minister	.....
NORWAY.	
Ministry of Social Affairs (address, Viktoria terrasse, 11–13, Kristiania):	
General division—	
Fredrik Vogt, general secretary	.....

[30] Deals with general affairs concerning labor; carrying out of factory laws, miners, and international labor business.

[31] Has charge of social insurance, relief of unemployment, protection of children, charities, and affairs relative to social work.

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
PANAMA.	
Ministry of Public Works (address, Panama):	
José M. Fernandez, assistant secretary	
PERSIA.	
Ministry of Commerce, Agriculture, and Public Works (address, Teheran):	
PERU.	
Ministry of Public Works (address, Lima):	
Dr. Lauro E. Curletti, minister	
POLAND.	
Ministry of Labor and Social Assistance (address, Place Dombrowski, 1, Warsaw):	
Labor protection department—	
M. Klott de Heidenfeld, acting director	
Labor inspection—	
M. Klott de Heidenfeld, chief labor inspector	
Ministry of Industry and Commerce (address, Elektoralna 2, Warsaw):	
Bureau for labor questions (under industrial department)—	
T. Hiz, chief	
Bureau for labor questions (under department of mines and foundries)—	
H. Adamowicz, chief	
Bureau of labor questions and social insurance (under department of Upper Silesian affairs)—	
J. Lebiedzik, chief	
PORTUGAL.	
Ministry of Labor (address, Lisbon):	
A. C. R. Saraiva, minister	
RUMANIA.	
Ministry of Public Health, Labor, and Social Welfare (address, Strada Wilson, Bucharest):	
General labor directorate—	
I. Setlacec, director general	
SALVADOR.	
Ministry of the Interior, Industry and Agriculture (address, San Salvador):	
Dr. Francisco Lima, minister	
KINGDOM OF THE SERBS, CROATS, AND SLOVENES.	
Ministry of Social Policy (address, 15, Obilitchev Venatz, Belgrade):	
Protection of workers division—	
Dr. Srétene Koujelj, chief	
Labor inspection division—	
Alfred Souda, chief	
SIAM.	
Ministry of Commerce (address, Bangkok):	
Board of commercial development (deals with labor matters).	
H. R. H. The Prince of Chandaburi, president	

Designation of office and name and address of official.	Salary per annum.
SPAIN.	
Ministry of Labor, Commerce and Industry (address, Paseo de la Castellana, 3, Madrid):	
Technical office for labor questions—	
Technical advisers—	
D. Ricardo Oyuelos Perez	.....
D. Juan Relinque	.....
Subdirectorate of labor—	
D. Felipe Gomez Cano, assistant director	.....
SWEDEN.	
Ministry of Social Affairs (address, Mynttorget 2, Stockholm):	
Labor and social welfare section—	
H. J. V Nissen, chief	.....
SWITZERLAND.	
Federal Department of National Economy (address, Palais Federal, Berne):	
Federal labor office—	
H. Pfister, director	.....
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.	
State Department of Mines and Industries (address, Pretoria):	
Labor division—	
Maj. J. J. Naudé, chief inspector	.....
URUGUAY.	
Ministry of Industry (address, Montevideo):	
National labor office—	
Eduardo B. Anaya, director	.....
VENEZUELA.	
Ministry of Labor (address, Caracas):	
Dr. Antonio Alamo, minister	.....

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

Official—United States.

CALIFORNIA.—*Board of Education. Report of the commissioner of industrial and vocational education for the biennial period ending June 30, 1922. Part I. Sacramento, 1923. 80 pp.*

This report deals mainly with vocational education in the public schools, adult education, and the training of vocational teachers in the State. It includes the number of students enrolled and the amount of money, both Federal and State, appropriated for each school. The increase in the number of schools, the training of teachers, and the development of adult education are also special features.

— *Industrial Welfare Commission. What California has done to protect its women workers. San Francisco, 1923. 12 pp.*

A preliminary report, giving some details as to the establishment and working of the minimum wage law and other activities of the commission. Some figures are given bearing on the frequently repeated assertion that under a minimum wage law the legal minimum tends to become the standard or even the maximum wage. In 1920 a minimum wage of $16 a week was established for women in mercantile, manufacturing, and laundry industries in California. In the fall, shortly after the wage was established, inspection of the pay rolls of 3,244 such establishments with 50,704 employees, showed that 14.3 per cent of the employees were receiving less than $16 a week, 37.3 per cent received that amount, and 48.4 per cent received more. In March, 1922, another such inspection, covering 4,350 establishments with 52,326 employees showed that only 8.2 per cent were receiving less than $16 a week, 32.9 per cent received just $16, and the proportion receiving over the minimum had risen to 58.9 per cent.

COLORADO.—*Bureau of Mines. Annual report for the year 1922. Denver, 1923. 58 pp.*

Accident statistics from this report are published on page 193 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

CONNECTICUT.—*Board of Compensation Commissioners. Report for the years 1921 and 1922. Hartford, 1922. 24 pp. Public document No. 58.*

Figures from this report are given on page 203 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

IDAHO.—*Industrial Accident Board. Report from November 1, 1920, to October 31, 1922. Boise, 1923. 260 pp.*

Portions of this report are summarized on page 193 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

LOUISIANA.—*Bureau of Labor and Industrial Statistics. Labor laws of the State of Louisiana, 1922. New Orleans [1922?]. 137 pp.*

MARYLAND.—*[Board of Labor and Statistics.] Labor laws of Maryland. A compilation of the laws regulating labor as they appear in the statutes of Maryland and the ordinances of the mayor and city council of Baltimore. Baltimore [1923]. 314 pp.*

MASSACHUSETTS.—*Department of Education. Annual report for the year ending November 30, 1921. Boston [1922]. 341, ccxix pp.*

Includes, in addition to regular educational data, information regarding vocational schools of various kinds, the rehabilitation of the disabled, vocational teacher training, and important work in university extension.

MISSOURI.—*Bureau of Labor Statistics. Annual reports for the two calendar years ended December 31, 1922. An industrial history of Missouri, 1922, 1921, 1920. Jefferson City, 1923. xv, 1049 pp.*

This volume, known as the Missouri Red Book, contains statistical and other data relative to all phases of labor, special attention being given to the commercial, industrial, social, educational, and sanitary conditions of the wage earners.

Data from this report are published on page 153 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

NEW YORK.—*Legislature. Joint Legislative Committee on Housing. Final report. Albany, 1923. 152 pp. Legislative Document (1923) No. 48.*

This report, it is stated, is intended to be merely supplementary to the intermediate report issued in 1922, which was reviewed in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for September, 1922 (pp. 165–168). A considerable portion of the report is devoted to the activities of labor unions, more especially to practices which result in delaying output or unduly increasing cost. A supplemental inquiry into illegal combinations is summarized and it is stated that "despite the revelations made by the prosecutions and convictions of offenders and the opinions of the court branding as illegal the operations of open-price associations, many business men still continue defiantly to combine and conspire to throttle competition and elevate prices to the maximum point." Further consideration is given to the investments of insurance companies, the question of workmen's compensation insurance is discussed, and some attention is given to stock exchange practices as affecting trade combinations.

OREGON.—*Child Welfare Commission. Report for the biennial period ending September 30, 1922. Salem, 1923. 74 pp.*

Contains a summary of the work of the commission, with statistics concerning the work of child-caring institutions, both public and private. Recommends the formation, by legal enactment, of county organizations in each county to cooperate with the commission and the county court in working out the local problems of child welfare; amendment of the child-placing law so that relatives of the first and second degrees will not be permitted to give children for adoption to outsiders without first obtaining the sanction of the commission; and the establishment of a definite standard of admission, to be prescribed by law, for all child-caring institutions where State aid is to be given.

—— *Industrial Welfare Commission. Biennial report, 1921–1922. Salem, 1923. 31 pp.*

A brief summary of this report is given on pages 118 and 119 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

PENNSYLVANIA (PITTSBURGH).—*Board of Public Education. Department of vocational guidance. Vocational Guidance Bulletin, 1922. [Pittsburgh, 1923.] xiv, 145 pp.*

An account of the methods and policies followed by the department of vocational guidance of the Pittsburgh public-school system in training and placing young wage earners.

WISCONSIN.—*Industrial Commission. Workmen's compensation. Annual report, July 1, 1921, to June 30, 1922. [Madison, 1922?] 101 pp.*

A brief summary of this report is given on pages 204 and 205 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

UNITED STATES.—*Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. Abstract of occupation statistics. Washington, 1923. [Reprint of Tables 1 to 49 from the Abstract of the Fourteenth Census, pp. 478–573.]*

The occupational statistics shown in this reprint give the number and sex of occupied persons in the United States in 1920 and at earlier periods; their color or race, by sex and by occupation; their age distribution, and the marital condition of occupied women.

UNITED STATES.—*Department of Labor. Humanity in government, by James J. Davis, Secretary of Labor. Washington, 1923. 39 pp.*

In this pamphlet by the Secretary of Labor is described the work which the Department of Labor is doing for the welfare of the citizens of the country. The general purpose of the department in caring for the welfare of the wage earner is outlined in the first chapter, and the succeeding chapters describe briefly the aims and accomplishments of each bureau and division of the department and of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, of which the Secretary of Labor is chairman.

—— —— *Bureau of Labor Statistics. Code of lighting: Factories, mills, and other work places. Prepared under sponsorship of Illuminating Engineering Society, New York, N. Y. Washington, 1923. 29 pp. Bulletin No. 331. Safety code series.*

The revised lighting code for factories and other work places has been approved as an "American standard" by the American Engineering Standards Committee. The purpose of its preparation was to furnish authoritative information for legislatures and other organizations interested in establishing rules and regulations for better lighting. The bulletin gives rules arranged in suitable form for enactment as law or as governmental regulations, and contains a discussion of the legal requirements to be met in putting a code into effect as well as suggestions regarding desirable practice in factory lighting. The third part takes up the advantages of good illumination and discusses the costs.

—— —— —— *Kansas Court of Industrial Relations. Washington, 1923. 51 pp. Bulletin No. 322. Labor laws of the United States series.*

This bulletin gives the text of the industrial court law of Kansas, which was passed in 1920, a synopsis of the cases filed on the industrial side of the court during 1920 and 1921, showing the methods and principles adopted by the court in its various actions, an account of the legal proceedings arising in connection with the attendance of witnesses before the court, and other activities of the court. A résumé is also given of the annual reports which have been published, and a bibliography of books and articles relating to the court is appended. The bulletin is based only on official data and presents no other viewpoint or comment than that of the body under consideration or of the courts discussing it.

—— —— —— *Methods of procuring and computing statistical information of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Washington, 1923. 54 pp. Bulletin No. 326. Miscellaneous series.*

The purpose of this bulletin is to describe the principal activities of the bureau and to outline the methods used in making its investigations and preparing its reports. The different subjects covered regularly in the investigations of the bureau are taken up and examples are given of questionnaires and schedules used by agents in collecting material relating to wages and hours of labor, cost of living, retail and wholesale prices, volume of employment, strikes and lockouts, industrial accidents, and workmen's compensation and insurance. The methods used in making computations are also described, and the extent of the work done in the different fields of study is given, together with the sources from which this information is drawn and the scope of the various investigations.

—— —— —— *National health insurance in Great Britain, 1911 to 1921, by Henry J. Harris. Washington, 1923. 103 pp. Bulletin No. 312. Workmen's insurance and compensation series.*

The operation of the national health insurance act of Great Britain from the enactment of the act in 1911 to 1921 is covered in this bulletin. Through amendments to the original act the insurance covers all persons 16 years of age and over who are employed in any service for which remuneration is paid, subject to certain restrictions. There is no restriction of membership in the approved societies in regard to manual

workers but persons employed at other than manual labor whose annual earnings are in excess of a stated sum are not eligible for membership.

The insurance plan is a combined sickness and invalidity system, and provides both medical care and cash payments, and the fund is derived from contributions from insured persons and from employers, and from grants from the national treasury.

UNITED STATES.—*Department of Labor. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Proceedings of the tenth annual meeting of the International Association of Public Employment Services held at Washington, D. C., September 11–13, 1922. Washington, 1923. 76 pp. Bulletin No. 337. Employment and unemployment series.*

An account of this meeting was published in the October, 1922, MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW (pp. 82–85).

—— —— —— *Safety code for the use, care, and protection of abrasive wheels. Tentative American standard. Washington, 1923. 20 pp. Bulletin No. 338. Safety code series.*

This safety code was sponsored by the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions and the Grinding Wheel Manufacturers' Association of the United States and Canada and was approved by the American Engineering Standards Committee. The code gives rules and specifications concerning protective devices and general machine requirements which are necessary to insure safety in the use of abrasive wheels operating at speeds exceeding 2,000 surface feet per minute.

—— —— —— *Union scale of wages and hours of labor May 15, 1922. Washington, 1923. 210 pp. Bulletin No. 325. Wages and hours of labor series.*

Advance data from this bulletin were published in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for September, 1922 (pp. 69–95).

—— —— —— *Wages and hours of labor in the men's clothing industry, 1911 to 1922. Washington, 1923. 39 pp. Bulletin No. 329. Wages and hours of labor series.*

Advance data from this bulletin were published in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for December, 1922 (pp. 99–104).

—— —— *Women's Bureau. The share of wage-earning women in family support. Washington, 1923. 170 pp. Bulletin No. 30.*

A review of this report is given on pages 140 to 142 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

—— *Federal Board for Vocational Education. Handbook of information for State officials cooperating in the administration of the vocational rehabilitation act. Washington, 1922. 50 pp. Bulletin No. 77. Industrial rehabilitation series, No. 6.*

Official—Foreign Countries.

BELGIUM (PROVINCE OF HAINAUT).—*Commission administrative de la caisse de prévoyance des charbonnages du couchant de Mons en faveur des ouvriers mineurs. Rapport sur les opérations de l'année 1922.* [*Mons, 1923. 23 pp.*]

This report of the miners' insurance fund shows that in 1922 the pensions amounted to 3,584,436 francs ($691,796, par), which was paid to 6,188 pensioners of the 18 societies belonging to the fund. The total number of workers in the mines during 1922 was 35,599 and the average daily wage was 20.25 francs ($3.91, par).

CANADA.—*Department of Labor. Annual report on labor organization in Canada (for the calendar year 1922.) Ottawa, 1923. 315 pp.*

Extracts from this publication are given on pages 220 and 221 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

DENMARK (COPENHAGEN).—*Statistiske Kontor. Statistisk Aarbog for København og Frederiksberg, 1922. Copenhagen, 1923. xvi, 169 pp.*

Statistical yearbook for Copenhagen and Frederiksberg for 1922. In this yearbook material is arranged as in previous issues, and several new tables have been added. Contains statistics on housing, prices, unemployment, etc.

FINLAND.—[*Industristyrelsen?*] *Industristatistik 37 år 1920. Helsingfors, 1923. 48, 74 pp. Finlands Officiella Statistik, X VIII A.*

Industrial statistics for Finland for the year 1920. Contains a résumé in French.

—— —— *Industristatistik 38 år 1921. Helsingfors, 1923. 26, 82 pp. Finlands Officiella Statistik, X VIII A.*

Industrial statistics for Finland for 1921. Contains a résumé in French. Statistics from this report are given on page 98 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

GREAT BRITAIN.—*Board of Education. Adult education committee. The development of adult education for women. London, 1922. 50 pp. Paper No. 4.*

Since the war there has been, says this report, a widespread and growing interest in education of a political and economic character for women, which is attributable to the enlarged industrial importance and influence of women, the extension of the franchise, and women's increasing participation in the work of trade-unions, cooperative societies, and trade and political organizations. The report reviews briefly what is now being done to advance such an educational movement and gives statistics of the enrollment in classes (evening schools, tutorial classes, women's institutes, etc.) approved by the board of education.

—— —— —— *The development of adult education in rural areas. London, 1922. 55 pp. Paper No. 3.*

Sets forth the necessity of adult education in the rural districts and the peculiar difficulties encountered in establishing and carrying on classes in remote agricultural sections. The work of existing organizations is outlined and suggestions as to their possible improvement and extension are made.

—— *Industrial Court. Decisions Nos. 692 to 747, October 1, 1921, to December 30, 1922. Vol. IV, Part III. London, 1923. xxxiv, 178 pp.*

—— *Registry of Friendly Societies. Registered provident societies in Great Britain. General summary, 1920–21. London, 1923. 1 p.*

INDIA (BOMBAY).—*Labor Office. Report on an inquiry into working class budgets in Bombay, by G. Findlay Shirras. Bombay, 1923. 299 pp.*

A digest of this report is given on pages 87 to 91 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

JAPAN.—*Department of Finance. Twenty-second financial and economic annual of Japan, 1922. Tokyo [1923?]. vii, 239 pp. Map and charts.*

Gives statistical information relating to agriculture and industry, including rates of wages, index numbers of wages, the number of employees in different enterprises classified according to occupations, etc. Data from this report, on wages and hours of labor and on production in coal mines, are given on pages 103 to 105 and page 114 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

SWEDEN.—*Socialstyrelsen. Kollektivavtal i Sverige år 1922. Stockholm, 1923. vi, 28 pp. Sveriges Officiella Statistik. Socialstatistik.*

Figures from this report on collective agreements in Sweden during 1922 are given on page 139 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

SWITZERLAND (ZURICH).—*Statistisches Amt. Statistisches Jahrbuch der Stadt Zürich 1918 und 1919. Zurich, 1923. xxiii, 71*, 371 pp.*

The somewhat delayed issue of the statistical yearbook of the city of Zurich, Switzerland, for the years 1918 and 1919. This double volume contains practically the same kind of statistical data as preceding issues. Of special interest to labor are the data on building activities, the housing market and rents, retail prices, cost of living, and the labor market. In addition to numerous statistical tables the volume contains an article on the fixing of maximum prices and other measures of the authorities in the matter of provisioning the population with foodstuffs and fuel in war and postwar times.

Unofficial.

ANDERSON, NELS. *The hobo. The sociology of the homeless man. Chicago, University of Chicago Press [1923]. xv, 302 pp.*

Chicago, with a changing population of from 30,000 to 75,000 homeless men, forms the background for this study of all phases of life among hoboes and vagrants. The study of these men, which was made by the writer under their actual living and tramping conditions, contains a quantity of case material drawn from the individuals with whom he associated. It goes deeply into the problems and psychology of the hobo and into the economic and social causes which force or lead him into a wandering life and which tend to keep him in it once the habit is formed. The committee on homeless men, organized by the Chicago Council of Social Agencies to study the problem of the migratory casual worker, directed the investigation, the object being to secure facts which would enable social agencies to deal intelligently with the problems created by this element of the population.

BOETTIGER, LOUIS A. *Employee welfare work. A critical and historical study. New York, Ronald Press Co., 1923. vi, 301 pp.*

The effort to improve working and living conditions of workers under the medieval manor and guild systems and under present factory organization forms the subject of this book. The history of earlier attempts and achievements in improving industrial conditions is believed by the writer to be of definite value to present-day managers. The major portion of the book summarizes present practices and conditions in American industry in regard to welfare work and outlines the place such work may occupy in the future.

CLEVELAND CHAMBER OF COMMERCE. *Committee on labor relations. Report. Employee representation in industry. Some plans in operation in Cleveland. [Cleveland] 1923. 110 pp.*

A summary of this report is given on pages 47 to 50 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

FEDERATED AMERICAN ENGINEERING SOCIETIES. *Committee on work periods in continuous industry. The 12-hour shift in industry. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1922. ix, 302 pp.*

A review of this report, made from an advance mimeographed copy, appeared in the November, 1922, issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW (pp. 27–36). Comparison of the findings in the iron and steel industry by this committee and those of the committee of the Iron and Steel Institute is made on pages 92 to 95 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

FREY, JOHN P. *The labor injunction. An exposition of government by judicial conscience and its menace. Cincinnati [1923?]. ix, 197 pp.*

This discussion of the labor injunction contains a historical review of the origin of courts of equity and of their use of the injunction in Great Britain and the United States. The more notable labor injunctions issued in this country since the first one in 1888 are reviewed, and there is a general discussion of the principles involved in this form of government. The subject is treated from the trade-unionist point of view.

FUKUDA, TOKUZO. *A treatise on economics. Tokyo, Da-tau-Koku Co., 1921. 14, 406 pp. In Japanese.*

Part III contains a discussion and historical study of wage theories and labor contracts.

—— *Economic crisis and economic rehabilitation. Tokyo, Da-tau-Koku Co., 1923. 392 pp., charts. In Japanese.*

Chapter VI is a discussion of the principal factors to be considered in the reduction of prices; Chapter VII deals with the part of the United States, Japan, and China in the economic rehabilitation of the world.

FUKUDA TOKUZO. *Principles of economics. Tokyo, Da-tau-Koku Co., 1921. 674 pp. In Japanese.*

Part I, on "general principles," discusses stock companies, municipal finance, programs to improve social and economic conditions, public utilities, index numbers of wholesale prices of commodities, profit sharing, currency, socialism, and population. Part II consists of notes on European, Chinese, and Japanese philosophers and economists and their theories. Part III includes a section on the labor movement, with special reference to the development of unionization, strikes, and boycotts; it also contains sections on statistics, general principles of economics, and freedom of speech.

GUYOT, GABRIEL. *La loi des huit heures en France et ses conséquences économiques. Paris, Édition de la Vie Universitaire, 13 Quai de Conti, 1922. 100 pp.*

This study of the eight-hour law in France reviews the events leading up to its enactment; the method of application of the law; the effects upon production, wages, and prices; the financial consequences of the law; the law from the international point of view; and the use made by the workers of their leisure time.

HUNT, HENRY T. *Means to promote cooperation between railroad managements and employees. New York, 1922. 46 pp.*

This pamphlet is reviewed on pages 46 and 47 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

INSTITUTE FOR GOVERNMENT RESEARCH. *The Railroad Labor Board, its history, activities, and organization, by Joshua Bernhardt. Baltimore, Johns Hopkins Press, 1923. x, 83 pp. Service monographs of the United States Government, No. 19.*

This study is one of the series of uniformly planned monographs on the organization and operation of the services of the Government from the administrative point of view. The historical section describes the European experiences, and State legislation prior to congressional action in the United States, and notes the provisions of the successive laws which have related to industrial disputes on the railroads prior to the passage of the transportation act. The description of the work of the board is confined to a brief statement of its wage decisions. The study contains a classification of the quasi-judicial and administrative activities of the board as set forth in the act, and an outline of its organization with respect to class of employees and annual salary. Appendixes contain the provisions of the Newlands Act and Title III of the transportation act, a financial statement of appropriations and expenditures of the board for the fiscal years 1920 to 1922, and a list of references intended to meet the needs of persons who desire further study.

KLEIN, PHILIP. *The burden of unemployment. A study of unemployment relief measures in 15 American cities, 1921–22. New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1923. 260 pp.*

The measures by which the unemployment crisis in 1921–22 was met by families of the unemployed and by civic and philanthropic organizations form the subject of this study, which was made during the height of the period of industrial depression, under the direction of the Russell Sage Foundation. The study is confined to consideration of the actual distress caused by unemployment and to the meaning of unemployment to the individual community, and does not go into the economic phases of an unemployment crisis nor into the question of unemployment insurance, pensions, or similar proposals. Fifteen cities representing the different industrial sections of the country were included in the survey.

LINK, HENRY C. *Education and industry. New York, Macmillan Co., 1923. xv, 265 pp.*

A discussion of industrial rather than vocational education, based upon the author's experience as director of the educational activities of two large industrial corporations. He believes that industries should be financially and managerially responsible for only such educational activities as they are peculiarly able to carry on and that contribute most directly and exclusively to the conduct of their business. Training of benefit

to the community should be assumed by the community or by the individual himself. A line of demarcation is drawn between these two classes of training, and practical suggestions are made as to methods of conducting the educational work which should be undertaken by industries.

MACKENZIE, WILLIAM. *The industrial court: Practice and procedure, together with the industrial courts act, 1919 (relevant provisions), the industrial court (procedure) rules, 1920, and forms of terms of reference or remit. London, Butterworth & Co., 1923. xiii, 44 [9] pp.*

MINNESOTA [STATE] UNIVERSITY. *Agricultural experiment station. Wages of farm labor. St. Paul, May, 1922. 65 pp. Technical bulletin 4.*

An analysis of the wages of hired farm labor in Minnesota during 1919, involving comparisons of the various farming sections of the State, an account of the systems of farming, and the tracing of changes in wage levels previous to 1919. The report includes also correlated subjects of hiring, demand, and supply of labor, and relation of farm wages to farm profits, and a table showing comparative daily and monthly wages for Iowa, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin for various years from 1866 to 1920, inclusive.

NATIONAL BUREAU OF ECONOMIC RESEARCH. *Business cycles and unemployment. An investigation made for a committee of the President's Conference on Unemployment. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co. (Inc.). 1923. ix, 405 pp.*

This study by various economists and public men, under the direction of the National Bureau of Economic Research, was made at the request of the Secretary of Commerce for the purpose of bringing together facts which should be considered in establishing practical measures for reducing unemployment. The study was limited in time, size, and scope, distinguishing between the problems of cyclical and seasonal unemployment and excluding the latter, although the close relationship of the two problems was recognized. The report is divided into three sections, the first part taking up the relation of business cycles to unemployment; the second, cyclical fluctuations in unemployment, and the third, dealing with proposed remedies for preventing or at least reducing cyclical unemployment.

NATIONAL MARITIME BOARD [GREAT BRITAIN]. *Yearbook, 1923. Summary of agreements. London, 1923. 59 pp.*

Covers standard rates of pay for all grades in the maritime service; details regarding other conditions of employment such as hours, overtime, annual leave, subsistence allowances in home ports; the constitution of the maritime board, including district maritime boards, and a directory of official addresses.

NORTH CAROLINA [STATE] UNIVERSITY. *University extension division. The enforcement of Railroad Labor Board decisions. Chapel Hill, University Press, 1922. 84 pp. Extension Bulletin, Vol. II, No. 5.*

This bulletin contains arguments and material for affirmative and negative positions in a debate on the question, "*Resolved*, That Congress should provide for the enforcement of decisions of the Railroad Labor Board."

ROWE, J. W. F. *Wages in the coal industry. London, P. S. King & Son (Ltd.), 1923. viii, 174 pp.*

In this book the author attempts to present the history of the British coal-mining industry and to give accounts of the methods by which wages are regulated in the different mining districts. The various coal fields are treated separately, a brief sketch of the geological and commercial characteristics of each field, of the methods of mining, of occupational distinctions, of methods of wage regulation and payment, and of hours of labor, being given in each instance. Details of the present method of wage payment, which is based upon the profits of the industry in each field, are also considered. A selected bibliography on the British mining industry is included, as are several appendixes giving supplementary information relating to the several coal fields.

SECRÉTARIAT DES PAYSANS SUISSES. *Modèles de statuts à l'usage des associations agricoles suisses. Brugg, 1922. 365 pp. Publication No. 62.*

Contains an analysis of the requirements of the Swiss laws governing associations—politico-economic, political, agricultural, and cooperative; also reproductions of the by-laws of certain typical associations, and model by-laws for the use of the various types of associations provided for by the Swiss laws.

VEILIGHEIDSMUSEUM (AMSTERDAM). *Jaarverslag 1922. Amsterdam, 1922. 48 pp. Illus.*

The annual report for the year 1922 of the foundation "Het Veiligheidsmuseum" (safety museum) in Amsterdam. The museum is maintained through annual donations from societies and institutions, employers' and workers' organizations, industrial and mercantile establishments, and private individuals. In addition it receives an annual subsidy of 7,000 guilders ($2,814, par) from the State and one of 4,000 guilders ($1,608, par) from the municipality of Amsterdam. During the year under review the museum had 16,014 visitors (13,587 men and 2,427 women). After giving an exhibition of American safety posters the museum announced a competition for effective safety posters and awarded four prizes for the best posters submitted. The director of the museum and other safety experts gave 35 lectures during the year in the museum, attended by 1,211 persons. The director of the museum also gave 15 lectures on safety outside of the museum, mostly in Amsterdam.